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ABSTRACT

The second of five reports on Project REACH (Regular Education for All Children with Handicaps) describes an inservice approach to the integration of severely disabled students. REACH inservice is ongoing, systematic, and responsive and focuses on attitude and behavior change of both students and teachers. Three chapters address such preliminary considerations as the contribution of inservice to attitude change, planning a peer tutor/special friends programs, and cutting costs through the trainer of trainers model (using an inservice coordinator). Lesson plans for six modules are then presented; modules cover such topics as awareness, civil rights and disabled persons, and labels and myths. The peer tutoring model and its structured interaction approach to creating more spontaneous relationships is illustrated via case histories of participating students. Self-produced audiovisual materials are introduced and suggestions offered about equipment. Two concluding chapters consist of a series of bibliographies (on nonprint and media), disabilities for young people, and professional resources) and abstracts of research on the topic. (CL)

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Awareness and Inservice Manual AIM

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REGULAR EDUCATION FOR ALL CHILDREN WITH HANDICAPS

AWARENESS AND INSERVICE MANUAL
(A.I.M.)

by

Carola Murray

and

Susan Porter Beckstead

Editor: Jane Margold

With contributions from Kathy Gee, Nan Graham,
Ann Halvorsen and Chesca Piuma

The AIM was developed through the cooperative efforts of San Francisco State University and San Francisco Unified School district.

Wayne Sailor, Ph.D. - Principal Investigator

Notice

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1. INTRODUCTION: A RUDE AWAKENING

The authors of this manual share the responsibility for providing inservice education at the five school sites that were involved with Project REACH. When we began this job, our own need for order inspired us to design a logical sequence of in-service presentations. On the assumption that we'd be able to predict and control our interactions with the school system, we carefully reviewed the literature on inservice practice (see Chapter 9), decided who our target audiences would be and formed hypotheses about the probable effects of various content and presentation variables on our subject audiences. We expected to identify integration sites in the spring, offer inservice to administrators before the fall school opening and provide a series of formal presentations to regular education staff and students on a monthly basis throughout the school year. We anticipated applying this plan, with minor adaptations, at each project site.

When we tried to implement our tidy sequence, however, we quickly became aware that the realities of life in a complex school district render such a plan futile. For example, we first planned to begin inservice activities in spring. But we discovered that integration sites couldn't be chosen until the yearly budget was approved. In San Francisco, the budget is approved in August; staff receive their assignments in September and children receive placement notifications shortly before the first week of school. So much for our nice neat timeline.

The logical content sequence that we'd designed met a similar fate. The sequence had moved from general information in the form of training awareness for teachers and several levels of awareness for students to more particularized training in the form of follow-up and mini-courses, as needed, for peer tutors. We found, however, that although some sites said they'd like the whole sequence, they had no time to allocate for inservice. Other sites wanted only parts of planned presentations with no regard for our predetermined order. So much for our logical sequence. It therefore hit home to us that the integration of students with severe disabilities into a large urban school district presented a number of unique challenges, some of which could be predicted and others of which resisted advance preparation.

These early experiences convinced us to change our philosophy of inservice education. Instead of a deterministic model built on deductive logic, we decided on a responsive model. We

rejected our "castor oil" philosophy (i.e., "take it because it's good for you and don't ask any questions"), and began instead to respond to the expressed needs of the teachers and students we hoped to serve. In retrospect, we seem to have made the right decision. We can now report that integration is beginning to happen at our school sites. We see positive spontaneous interactions between able-bodied people and severely disabled people in elementary, middle school and high school settings. We think that the success of integration in San Francisco is attributable to system-wide efforts by many individuals -- and inservice education is one of several critical elements in those efforts to produce system-wide change.

Since it's our belief that every community is different, this manual won't attempt to be a fail-proof "cookbook" of inservice activities, even though we do provide specific inservice lesson plans, procedures and references. We've tried to describe -- mistakes and all -- what we've done within the San Francisco schools to make it possible for severely disabled and able-bodied peers to interact with each other in positive ways. Our goal is to encourage you -- teachers, administrators, therapists, nurses, and public health workers -- to plan inservice that responds to the particular characteristics of your community.

A note on terminology

Throughout this manual, "inservice" is used to refer to training teachers and students. Although this isn't the usual meaning of inservice, it was less cumbersome to use the word in this way than to continually specify that students would be trained too.

In the following sections, we define what REACH inservice is and explain why REACH is effective. The next chapter focuses on inservice as a means of changing attitudes.

A. What is REACH Inservice?

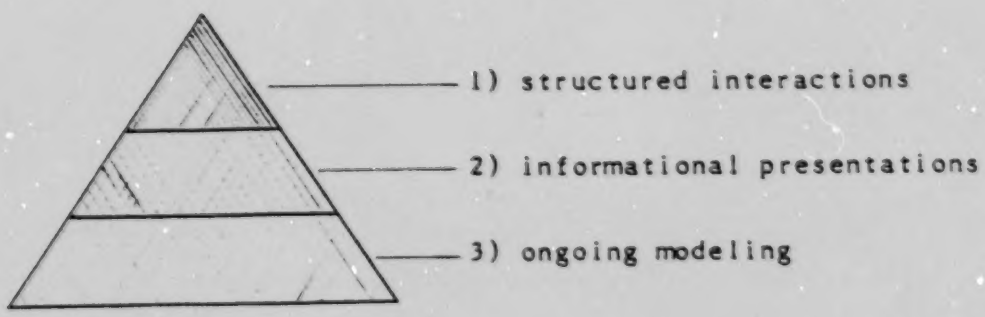
Inservice education, as developed by Project REACH, addresses the twin problems of attitude and behavior change. If able-bodied people are to alter their usually negative attitudes toward people with disabilities and positive interactions are to occur between these two groups, inservice must be more broadly defined than it customarily is. Conventional inservice education is episodic, molecular, and determinist. Typically a one-shot presentation to teachers or administrators, it usually consists of material predetermined by some outside expert that advises school staff how to handle particular educational problems.

In contrast, REACH advocates inservice that is ongoing, systemic, and responsive. Inservice education, as we define it,

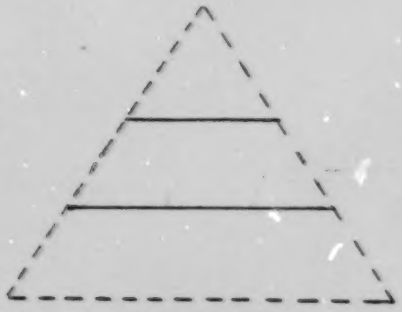
includes modeling, informational presentations and structured contact (see the model on the following page). These activities buttress each other, resulting in attitude and behavior change on the part of the able-bodied school community. Although the activities we provide sometimes take the episodic form of more traditional inservice sessions (e.g., workshops or group presentations), REACH inservice is ongoing in that it emphasizes day-to-day, informal contacts between special education personnel and regular education staff and students. In such contact, attitudes and behaviors are modeled that can powerfully affect subsequent interactions between able-bodied and severely disabled students. It's crucial to recognize the importance of such modeling and to remain aware that the attitudes and behavior of the special education staff will be copied by the rest of the school community. For example, an ongoing demonstration of high teacher expectations for severely disabled students will reinforce the information more formally presented during inservice awareness sessions or disability simulation workshops.

REACH Inservice

The model below is presented in the form of a triangle because ongoing modeling of positive attitudes toward students with severe disabilities is the base upon which the other two aspects of inservice rest. Similarly, it isn't possible to structure successful interactions between students without supporting them by accurate information about disabilities and disabled people, given through informational presentations.



REACH Model



Conventional Inservice

To further broaden and deepen the impact of REACH training activities, we also focus on providing inservice that is systemic rather than molecular in scope. Ordinarily, the goal of inservice education is changed teacher behavior and the audience addressed is limited to school district staff (Hutson, 1979). Because we know that attitudes toward people with disabilities are maintained by a broad array of societal forces and not just by teacher behaviors, we've directed our attitude change efforts at a wider audience. We make "Awareness Level" presentations to faculty, but we also include students in inservice activities by offering three types of formal presentations (i.e., Awareness Activities, Learning Stations, and Mini Lessons) and by structuring interactions between severely disabled students and nondisabled peers. We deal with the attitudes of nonteaching staff, such as custodians, cafeteria workers, and secretarial staff, through formal presentations, and by ensuring ongoing contact with special education staff and students. Further informal inservice is provided by teachers who move their students off campus to use functional, community-based curricula. As students learn how to negotiate laundromats, public transportation, and neighborhood shops, the public relations value of the resulting contacts between able-bodied and disabled people shouldn't be underestimated. Here again, just as they do within the scool, special educators have an opportunity to model attitudes and behaviors that provide alternatives to the popular stereotypic reactions of pity and discomfort. At the same time, students with severe disabilities who demonstrate growing independence and the ability to learn also act to break down stereotypic notions about disabled people.

Finally, we'd like to emphasize that REACH inservice is responsive rather than predetermined. We learned through harsh experience that content can only be decided upon after the inservice providers spend time in the individual school community.

To help us formulate an inservice plan, we use a Needs Assessment Interview to assess the entry-level skills of regular educators (see the Appendix) and a Checklist (see Chapter 3) to further note the characteristics (i.e., the educator's level of familiarity with disability) of each individual school site. These instruments combined with careful observation in the school can aid inservice providers in deciding upon the attitude change activities that are best suited to the needs of the individual sites.

B. Why Use the REACH Inservice Model?

It's important to realize that desegregation doesn't equal integration. In reponse to the "least restrictive environment" provisions of Public Law 94-142, (which state that severely disabled students should be educated in the least restrictive environment possible) students with severe disabilities are being assigned to regular education school sites with increasing frequency. But proximity doesn't automatically result in interaction, as studies of racial desegregation show. Such research repeatedly distinguishes between desegregation and integration (Ogbu, 1978). Schools in which social interaction occurs across racial lines are schools in which direct intervention to encourage such interaction takes place (Clement and Harding, 1978)

Research in special education similarly suggests that systematic efforts are necessary if social integration is to occur for disabled students (Guralnick, 1976; Nordquist, 1978; Snyder, Appoloni and Cook, 1977). Those programs that simply place students with disabilities on the same campus as regular education students don't result in the same quality or quantity of interactions as those in which a planned intervention prepares everyone for positive interactions.

REACH recognizes the need for social integration, and has designed its inservice model accordingly. Some questions the model addresses are: What sorts of interventions are most effective? Who should be the target group for inservice activities? What should such activities hope to accomplish in terms of observable behavior?

In order to develop an inservice program that will suit the needs of a particular community and begin to effect change, inservice providers will need to think about some general issues, such as the origins of prejudicial attitudes toward people with disabilities, how stereotypical attitudes are maintained in our society and what can be learned from theories of attitude change (which have been a major focus of social psychology research since the 1920's). Chapter 2 explains how the REACH inservice providers addressed these issues and questions.

As you think about the issues discussed in the next chapter, you'll undoubtedly realize that an integrated school can only exist in an integrated community. If students with severe disabilities are to be accepted within a regular school, a major change will have to occur in the way in which individual differences of all sorts are regarded in our society. School-based inservice can contribute to changing the attitudinal, economic, and legal factors that currently prevent the full integration of citizens with disabilities and we think that the REACH model offers an efficient means of beginning to make that contribution. But it's important to remember that systems change very slowly and it would be unrealistic to expect that changes in school policy and practice will quickly result in more widespread change. To complement school-based attitude-change efforts, disabled people and their advocates must also work toward obtaining those improved vocational and residential options that characterize a truly integrated community.

2. INSERVICE AND ATTITUDE CHANGE

A. Understanding the Nature of Attitudes

Attitudes are defined as "the intensity of positive or negative affect for or against a psychological object" (Thurstone, cited in Ashmore, 1975, see chapter 9, The Description of the Literature). Attitudes always have direction -- either toward or against a specific object. The object may be an individual or group of individuals, a set of physical objects or even an abstract idea.

If an attitude is broken down into its component parts, it becomes apparent that attitudes are actually made up of feelings, thoughts and behaviors (Schellenberg, 1970).

Typical inservice programs in settings where students with disabilities are being mainstreamed address the feeling and thought components of attitudes without directly addressing the important behavioral components. These programs base their activities on the assumption that people tend to seek consistency between the internal (feelings and thoughts) and external (behavior) expressions of their attitudes. In other words, many programs attempt to change students' and teachers' perceptions of people with disabilities through discussion or awareness type activities alone, on the assumption that behavior change will then result. This assumption may be problematic for two reasons. First, in a recent review of attitude-change research, Joy Donaldson (1980. See Chapter 9) suggested that unstructured group discussion about disabilities may backfire by reinforcing the negative stereotypes already held by group members. Second, if the goal of inservice programs is to change the way people act (as well as how they feel), then opportunities to establish new behavior patterns must accompany new information conveyed through awareness activities.

To ensure that positive attitudes are being created and that new behavior patterns are being established, the REACH Project uses a tri-level approach -- ongoing modeling plus informational presentations plus structured interactions (through peer tutoring and special friends programs). As we've stressed, the goal is to effect long-lasting changes in the ways nondisabled people feel about and act toward disabled people.

B. How Attitudes are Formed

In designing the REACH approach, we took into account the social psychological research on attitude formation. According to the literature, attitudes develop as a result of three main influences: our knowledge of the world around us, social norms and individual personality characteristics (Schellenberg, 1970). Little research has dealt specifically with attitudes toward people with severe disabilities, but information does exist on the formation of attitudes toward mentally retarded individuals. This material indicates that lack of information, social conformity and certain intrapsychic traits (or individual feelings and beliefs) contribute to the generally negative attitudes held by the nondisabled toward mentally retarded people (Gottlieb, 1975). It's likely that the same factors conspire to create negative attitudes toward severely disabled people as well.

Lack of information.

People are commonly afraid of the unknown. Several years ago Jay Gottleib, a researcher and faculty member at New York University, presented evidence to show that the general public knows little about mental retardation and about social programs for the retarded (Gottlieb, 1975. See chapter 9). Our more recent survey data and observation notes suggest similar public ignorance about severely disabled people. This ignorance isn't surprising. Because the severely disabled constitute a tiny percentage of the population, few nondisabled people have had personal contact with a severely disabled person. The practice of institutionalizing severely disabled people -- "protecting" them from casual contact with the nondisabled public -- has further narrowed the opportunity for contact.

During the awareness sessions we conducted for Project REACH, the questions regular faculty and students asked revealed both lack of knowledge and misinformation about people with severe disabilities. Disabling conditions were (and are) often viewed as contagious; "can I catch it?" is a common concern. Other questions showed minimal knowledge of the abilities and interests of severely disabled students ("Can I talk to him?" "Does she like to play?" "Can he learn anything?"), and the social opportunities available to severely disabled people ("Does she live with her mother?" "Will she live in a hospital when she leaves school?" "Can he have a girlfriend?").

It's important to realize that social integration is an effective way of changing this knowledge base. Formal inservice presentations can provide staff and students with new information, and special education teachers can answer questions in informal situations. But once staff and students have been prepared for first-hand contact, it's this form of direct experience with severely disabled students that will enable regular education staff and students to learn to assess the abilities and individual personalities of severely disabled people more positively.

Conformity in social norms.

Negative attitudes are perpetuated as much by lack of social contact as by lack of information. Social norms encourage association between equals and discourage association with members of unequal groups.

Equal status, therefore, needs to be established if ongoing interaction/social integration is to occur. Evidence to support this statement comes from the literature on racial desegregation, as well as from research into the integration of disabled people (Donaldson, 1980; Ogbu, 1982; Voeltz, 1980). And yet, in the United States, we live in a stratified society -- a social system in which some people are "more equal than others".

Stratification, or the ranking of individuals into high and low status groups, is generally affected by the following factors: economic standing; social status; ethnicity, race or caste membership; gender, and political status. By our own societal norms, disabled people generally occupy a low-status position not unlike that of other minority group members. Severely disabled people are often perceived by the general public to be incapable of self-support -- much less the degree of economic achievement valued so highly in modern America (Pumpian, 1981). There is no status honor associated with membership in the group labeled severely handicapped. And, like other minority groups who suffer discrimination in a stratified society, severely disabled people are seen to differ markedly from our societal ideal. The ways in which they differ include cultural traits (language, communication modes), physical traits (gait, mobility, appearance), and social traits (behavior, appearance of helplessness).

The consequences of these differences are similar for race/caste minorities and for disabled people: in stratified societies, people belonging to low-status social groups have impaired or unequal access to the fundamental resources of society (Ogbu, 1982). For disabled people, as for members of racial, ethnic, and sexual minorities, the mechanisms perpetuating inequality are stereotyping, discrimination, and conformity to social norms that discourage association between people of unequal status. Such conformity may explain the failure of "dump and hope" desegregation programs.

If integration is to be achieved, able-bodied adults and children must be made aware of their stereotypic views of disabled people. They then must be shown how to treat disabled people just as they treat those they perceive as able-bodied. Disability may mean difference -- but it does not mean inability.

Inservice programs can address the problems of discrimination and stereotyping in several ways. First, images can be

presented of severely disabled people who don't conform to discriminatory stereotypes (Donaldson, 1980). Disabled guest speakers are best at dispelling stereotypes, but the films and written materials listed in our bibliography are also effective (see Chapter 8). Second, accurate information can be provided about the vocational/economic achievements of people with severe disabilities (Pumpian, 1981). Many people don't realize that severely disabled students can be gainfully employed. Marc Gold's Try Another Way materials provide eye-opening information on this subject. Third, interactions between severely disabled and able-bodied people can be structured so that participants are of equal status (Donaldson, 1980). Cooperative games, such as those described in The New Games Book (see the References section) can provide the starting point for such positive interactions.

Individual feelings and beliefs.

Positive and negative attitudes are shaped by individual feelings and beliefs (or intrapsychic traits) as much as by lack of knowledge and societal forces. Richard Ashmore (1975), in his useful chapter on attitude change, identifies three general cognitive-affective syndromes that are said to be associated with the negative attitudes displayed by one group toward another. They are: 1) the belief that the other group is inferior, accompanied by feelings of contempt; 2) threatening images, accompanied by feelings of anger or fear; and, 3) the beliefs in strangeness or nonnormalcy, accompanied by feelings of discomfort.

Ashmore suggests that all three of these syndromes may be involved in negative attitudes toward mental retardation. Fearful feelings are often reported by the students we interviewed following their first contact with severely disabled people -- although some students have described themselves as just being curious, uneasy, or unsure of what to say or do. Joy Donaldson (1980), in her review of attitude change literature, describes interventions that are designed to alter similar cognitive-affective syndromes. For example, one study was based on the hypothesis that "nondisabled persons avoid handicapped individuals because of a discomfort created over a conflict between a desire to stare at the person (novel stimulus) and a desire to adhere to a cultural norm against staring when the novel stimulus is a person". The results of this study suggest that by sanctioning or allowing staring, the novelty of the stimulus can be reduced, and the discomfort caused by conflicting impulses can then be commensurately reduced.

C. Implications for Inservice: Modifying Attitudes Through Information and Structured Contact

Ashmore's analysis offers further support for inservice activities that emphasize: 1) information on the achievements of severely disabled students; 2) information on the ways in

which severely disabled students are similar to nondisabled students; 3) structured interactions during which initial fears can be overcome; and 4) opportunities for sanctioned staring, either through the use of media or through the appearance of guest speakers with disabilities.

Theories of attitude change stress the importance of setting up a two-way interaction between individuals and their environments. People are assumed to be most comfortable when their thoughts and behavior are consistent. When there is dissonance between thought and behavior, people will change their ideas or their actions until a more consonant (balanced) state is achieved. Thus, initially, able-bodied students involved with severely disabled students in a "Special Friends" program (see Chapter 6) may be afraid of their disabled peers. But the structure of the Special Friends Program may promote pleasurable interaction betwen students. The resulting conflict between previously-established thoughts (in this case, fears) and new behavior will cause individual students to seek a more balanced state of mind -- hopefully by changing the fearful attitudes that restricted interaction.

D. Methods of Modifiying Attitudes and Behavior

The experimental literature on attitude change suggests at least three possible means of modifying attitudes and behavior. As summarized by Ashmore, they are: communication/information techniques, behavior strategies, and self-confrontation exercises.

Communication/Information Techniques

- In presenting information, the focus should first be on finding a credible communicator. People with disabilities are probably the most credible sources of information about handicapping conditions. Guest speakers, films in which disabled people speak about themselves, and autobiographies are persuasive inservice aids. Another important factor here is the quality of the relationship between the presenter and his or her audience.

- When you think about the gaps in knowledge that inservice will address, remember that repeated exposure and experience reduces the "strangeness" of a novel stimulus. Peer tutoring (see Chapter 6), special friends programs, and daily contact all act to change attitudes that are based on lack of information. "Open door policies" and frank, positive communication by special education staff also serve to reduce the discomfort of able-bodied students and staff.

Behavioral Strategies

• Role-playing (writing and essay, making a speech, or acting out a dramatic role) induces participants to act in opposition to peer group norms that usually discourage interaction. Disability simulation sessions offer a combination of role-playing opportunities and information. An important factor is allowing the role-player to observe the reactions of able-bodied people, as was done in a successful study reported by Donaldson (1980).

• Enforced contact, such as the encounters that are structured by peer tutoring and Special Friends programs, can be a powerful impetus for attitude change. As we've mentioned, if such contact is poorly structured it can backfire -- increasing belief in negative stereotypes. According to Ashmore (1975), successful structuring is characterized by six factors: shared means and goals, equality of status, norms favoring contact and tolerance, positive experiences, acquaintance potential, and stereotype destruction.

Self-Confrontation

• Videotape playback can be used to make able-bodied people aware of ways in which their behavior toward severely disabled people differs from their usual behavior toward peers. For example, simplified, high-pitched speech is often unconsciously used by nondisabled people when addressing disabled individuals. Aside from being demeaning, such treatment can have a detrimental effect on the development of social skills in people with severe disabilities. Viewing one's interactions on videotape can make one aware of such unconscious behaviors, and therefore capable of altering them (Ashmore, 1975).

• Another opportunity for self-confrontation is an exercise in which students list inappropriate and appropriate vocabulary words (Nietupski, Hamre-Nietupski, Schuetz and Ockwoood, 1980). In addition to allowing students a chance to get out the "bad" terms used to describe atypical people, such an exercise encourages self-insight as individuals reflect on their own painful experiences with being labelled such things as "metal mouth", "four eyes", or "blubber".

E. The Audience for Inservice.

Project REACH was designed to address four different audiences: 1) regular education staff (administrators, teachers, and nonacademic support personnel); 2) regular education students; 3) special education staff (teachers of severely disabled students, and support personnel) and 4) parent/community people. Each of these four groups has different needs, and it obviously takes time to assess these needs, then involve all of these groups in attitude-change activities.

Nevertheless, during Project REACH, we found that a broad range of inservice activities could be completed within one school year. It would be a mistake to assume, though, that once a school has received a year's worth of inservice the job of attitude change is done. Not only do students need periodic "refresher courses" throughout the school year, but inservice programs must be repeated year after year. New students and staff join the school population, and old students' memories are short. Attitudes toward disabled people are deeply ingrained. Once again, we'd like to emphasize that changing those attitudes is a long, slow process requiring a great deal of persistence.

Regular Education Staff and Students

To our surprise, we discovered that regular education staff and students generally accepted the presence of students with severe disabilities at their school sites even before we began our inservice. The regular education population tended to underestimate the abilities of severely disabled students, and regular education staff were often intimidated by the mystique of special education's "special" knowledge, but they were tolerant of our presence (as long as it didn't mean extra work for them). It may be that the increasingly positive images of people with disabilities presented in the popular media (i.e., on Sesame Street) are affecting the attitudes of the public -- even those who have had little actual contact with disabled people. Inservice, therefore, focused on moving teachers and students beyond peaceful coexistence toward actual interaction (see Chapter 6).

Special Education Staff

We made the mistake of assuming that special education staff would naturally hold positive attitudes toward their severely disabled students. Unfortunately, we found that this was not always the case. The classrooms we studied were staffed by school district personnel who had chosen to teach at integrated sites. These teachers and paraprofessionals represented a wide range of age, experience, and teaching style/philosophy. They also exhibited a wide range of attitudes toward people with disabilities. Special education staff who have spent many years at segregated sites often become "institutionalized" and display just those negative attitudes that are most likely to perpetuate isolation and separation. They may have low expectations for their students, may see their students as different and dependent, and may model ways of behaving within the classroom that work against normalizing students' behavior. Some of the following factors may contribute to this problem of negative attitude:

- genuine lack of knowledge as to students' potential. Teachers trained in the older medical model may not have seen the success achieved by students taught by more contemporary methods.

- dependence on the mystique and status of "special" education. Some of us gain status from our ability to teach people who are so different, difficult and dependent that only the enlightened professional can deal with them. Learned helplessness in disabled people is probably the result of a symbiotic relationship between care-giver and care-recipient. Some teachers (and nurses, parents, and others) seem to need to keep the severely disabled child dependent in order to feel needed themselves.

- habits developed in segregated sites. "Protected" settings can encourage the development of practices that are very different from those used in the real world of regular schools. For example, regular elementary school staff don't habitually wear hospital smocks, administer public "dry pants checks", speak in high "baby talk" voices or pop bits of food into students' mouths in the course of instruction. In some instances, teachers independently become aware of the incongruity of such practices and voluntarily change them once they move to the normalized integrated school. In other cases, however, teachers resist change -- clinging to nonnormalized ways because they worked in the segregated setting.

- self-protection. Behavior modification is a two-way process. Severely disabled students condition teachers to tolerate behaviors in segregated settings (e.g., public masturbation) that become difficult to ignore in public. Teachers of severely disabled students in integrated settings can feel highly embarrassed by their students' behavior, and often react negatively and defensively.

Parent and Community Groups

Again, we saw differing attitudes within this audience. Parents of regular education children, and members of the community (i.e., neighborhood people, and proprietors of shops, restaurants, and laundromats) had accepting attitudes similar to those displayed by regular education staff and students. That is, once they were informed of the purpose of the integration program, they accepted the presence of severely disabled students on campus but tended to underestimate these students' abilities.

Many of the parents of the severely disabled children who'd been assigned to integrated sites, began the school year with a good deal of skepticism about the value of integration for their children but most became vocal supporters of the program after visiting classrooms and seeing videotapes of daily activities.

3. PREPARING FOR INTEGRATION: CHECKLISTS FOR ASSESSING A SCHOOL SITE'S INSERVICE NEEDS AND PLANNING A PEER TUTORING/SPECIAL FRIENDS PROGRAM

Integration doesn't "just happen". It comes about through and requires the involvement of certain key people. In our experience, these key people are the special education teacher, the school site administrator, and at least one district-level administrator.

If any of these people are unwilling to offer their support it's worth it for you to spend time enlisting them in the integration effort. Sponsoring visits to other integrated programs, sharing some of the literature that Chapter 9 this manual summarizes and establishing rapport and personal credibility are methods that we've used.

If all else fails, depend on the children. At school sites where we've experienced less-than-ideal participation by key staff, the regular education students have kept integration going. (see Chapter 6, Case Histories)

To help you lay the groundwork for an integration program, we've developed the checklists that appear on the following pages. As we planned inservice activities for the schools in San Francisco that were involved in Project REACH, we found that answering the questions on the lists enabled us to customize the inservice to the needs of each school. We suggest that you read the checklists, familiarizing yourself with the issues they raise. Then, spend some time looking at the physical plant of the school, talking with site administrators, and observing the activities of the students. You may wish to actually interview a few students and teachers. You might also find, as we did, that the best information can be obtained informally just by "hanging out" in the lunchroom or faculty lounge. Finally, after you've collected the data you need, go back and mark the checklists.

A. **A Checklist for Assessing a School Site's Inservice Needs**

Determining Age-appropriate Activities

- Check off the school practices that nondisabled students participate in. Then asterisk the school practices that severely disabled students need to participate in to be considered part of the school.

___ lining up

___ independently locating own classrooom

___ walking in straight lines

___ passing through the halls

___ getting on and off school bus

___ crossing the street with school guard's assistance

___ taking messages/notes to office

___ following school schedule

___ independently playing at recess

___ knowing whom to turn to for help

___ stopping play when school bell rings

___ responding to adults as authority figures

___ going through cafeteria line

___ sitting at a lunch table with minimal supervision

___ eating food in a limited period of time

___ using bathrooms appropriately

___ changing clothes before and after physical education

___ using individual lockers

___ hanging out

___ other

- List the leisure time activities that able-bodied students participate in (e.g., playing frisbee, jungle gym, etc.). Then asterisk the activities that are appropriate for the severely disabled students.

Determining Accessibility

- Which school areas are accessible to severely disabled students?

___ hallway

___ physical education

___ bathroom

___ school office

___ assemblies

___ cafeteria

___ nurse's office

___ library

___ playground

___ art/music

___ special education classroom

___ reg. ed classroom

Determining Opportunities for Interactions between Severely Disabled and Non Disabled Students

- Where are interactions between severely disabled/nondisabled students now occurring? Asterisk where you'd like interactions to occur.

___ hallway
___ assemblies
___ recess/playground
___ physical education
___ cafeteria
___ art/music
___ bathroom
___ nurse's office
___ special education classroom
___ school office
___ library
___ reg. ed. classroom
___ field trips
___ the community

- What kinds of activities are the nondisabled/severely disabled now participating in? Asterisk the activities students will participate in after your inservice.

___ peer tutor/special friends
___ academic tasks
___ art, music
___ physical education
___ story time
___ field trips
___ school assemblies
___ swimming
___ free play/leisure (e.g., school dances, sports)
___ school-wide activities (sports-day, graduation)
___ games, structured
___ other
___ games, unstructured

Determining the Attitudes and Practices of the School Staff and Students

- General characteristics of the regular education administrator (check applicable items)

___ is already so overburdened by job responsibilities that he/she wants nothing to do with special education

___ pays lip service to supporting integration activities

___ is willing to make time for inservice activities

___ is supportive of a peer tutoring program

___ wants special education classes placed in the center of the school

- General characteristics of special education administration (check applicable items)

___ believes in the concept of segregated sites

___ is integrating because the law requires it

___ supports the concept of integration

___ works cooperatively with regular education personnel

___ supports the practice of integration (i.e., provides money and personnel to support integrated activities)

___ understands the needs of integrated classes (i.e., provides release time for inservice)

- General characteristics of regular education teachers (check applicable items)

(all)	(some)	(none)	
___	___	___	Are already so overburdened by their job responsibilities that they don't want to have anything to do with severely disabled students
___	___	___	Have had previous negative experiences with special education
___	___	___	Have had previous positive experiences with special education
___	___	___	View special education students as "special" and "different"
___	___	___	View special education students as individuals with skills and strengths
___	___	___	Are willing to have severely disabled students in their classroom for certain activities
___	___	___	Are interested in a peer tutoring program

- General characteristics of special education teachers

(all) (some) (none)

___ ___ ___ Are already overburdened by job responsibilities

___ ___ ___ View selves as "special" and want to be separate

___ ___ ___ Are scared of regular education students or think they're a "pain"

___ ___ ___ Want to integrate students

___ ___ ___ Want regular education students in classroom

___ ___ ___ Want to participate in a peer tutoring program

___ ___ ___ Employ classroom practices that promote normalization

___ ___ ___ Want to participate in inservice training activities

___ ___ ___ Are friendly and outgoing

___ ___ ___ Are willing to be part of the school (take recess duty, eat with other teachers at lunch, etc.)

- General characteristics of nondisabled students

(all) (some) (none)

___ ___ ___ Believe special education students should be shipped out to some distant campus

___ ___ ___ Believe special education students belong on this campus but avoid contact or fear them

___ ___ ___ Make fun of special education students

___ ___ ___ Feel pity for special education students

___ ___ ___ Visit special education classroom

___ ___ ___ Only interact when directed by adult

___ ___ ___ Participate in peer tutoring/special friends program

___ ___ ___ Spontaneously interact with special education students

- General characteristics of severely disabled students

(all)	(some)	(none)	
___	___	___	Ambulatory
___	___	___	Nonambulatory
___	___	___	Verbal
___	___	___	Use sign language or communication board
___	___	___	Non-communicative
___	___	___	Show aggressive behavior
___	___	___	Show passive behavior
___	___	___	Size - appropriate to campus
___	___	___	Age - appropriate to campus
___	___	___	Physical anomalies
___	___	___	Specific disabilities

Planning the Content of the Inservice

- Check the needs/interests that participants have expressed. Then asterisk the items that you feel participants need to know about.

___ disabling conditions

___ accessibility

___ PL 94-142/civil rights of disabled persons

___ special education classroom activities

___ developing positive attitudes toward disabled people

___ other

___ stereotypes/myths

___ age-appropriate social interaction activities for severely disabled & nondisabled

___ future prospects/employment

___ wheelchair safety

___ simulation/sensitivity training

___ sign language

Planning the logistics of the inservice

- Who will conduct the inservice? (e.g., an administrator, special education teacher, parent, university student, etc.)

- What existing services could assist you in your inservice training? (e.g., local university, state department of education, etc.)

- Who will receive inservice training? (e.g., regular education teachers and students, administrators, physical therapists and other ancillary personnel, school secretaries, aides, paraprofessionals, school bus drivers, etc.)

- Are there district policies that might determine the type and amount of time individuals can spend in inservice? (e.g., union restrictions, substitute availability, amount of release time, etc.)

- When will you do the inservice? (e.g., before school, after school, at faculty meetings, etc.)

- Where will the inservice occur? (e.g., cafeteria, faculty room, special education classroom, etc.)

- Do you have the equipment/materials needed to conduct the inservice? (e.g., films, books, disability simulation materials, guest speakers)

- What method will you use in presenting the information? (e.g., informal discussions, lectures, simulations, etc.)

B. **Checklist for Planning a Peer Tutor/Special Friends Program**
(See Chapter 6 for information on peer tutoring and special friends)

General Considerations

- Is the classroom for severely disabled students on an integrated campus or in close proximity to regular education site?
- Is the regular education site administrator supportive of the concept of implementing a peer tutor program?
- Is the regular education site administrator willing to assist you in your efforts?
- What ways do you have of communicating with regular education staff?

___ staff meetings

___ newsletters

__ informal meetings at lunch, recess, before and after school

___ other

- What are the long range goals of implementing a special friends/peer tutor program in your school? What are the immediate objectives?

- What are the selection criteria for the peer tutors?

- What are the selection criteria for the special education students?

- Who will recruit and train regular education students?

  ___ principal/site administrator or site ancillary staff (social worker, psychologist, occupational therapist, etc.)

  ___ special education teacher

  ___ regular education teacher

  ___ parents

  ___ other special education staff (education specialist, program specialist staff development personnel, etc.)

  ___ other

- Is there a way of making students accountable once they have volunteered to participate in a special friends/peer tutor program?

  ___ grades ___ checklists

  ___ not necessary ___ award system

- Is it possible to meet regularly with peer tutors/special friends to discuss their questions and concerns?

- Is there a time to meet with regular education students?

  ___ before school ___ after school

  ___ lunch ___ in the classroom

  recess

- What will the peer tutoring training involve?

  ___ classroom visitation and observation ___ lectures

  ___ demonstrations

  ___ special media

  ___ other

- Where will the peer tutoring program occur?

  ___ PE ___ lunch ___ after school

  ___ recess ___ in the classroom for severely disabled students ___ before school

  ___ in regular education classroom

- Which regular education staff members are willing to participate in this program?

  ___ classroom teachers ___ counselors

  ___ principal ___ other

- In which extracurricular activities do the nondisabled students participate? Asterisk the activities that would be appropriate for your severely disabled students.

- What equipment/materials are needed for these activities?

- Are special education students and regular education students on the same schedule?

  ___ buses ___ starting ___ lunch time

  ___ recess ___ closing time

- What modifications do you need to make so that severely disabled students can participate in the regular education programs?

4. CUTTING INSERVICE COSTS: THE TRAINER-OF-TRAINERS MODEL

Whether you're an administrator, a teacher or a parent, the major problem you'll face once you've assessed a school's need for inservice is how to get an inservice program going. We think that two elements are essential: 1) designating one person who'll be responsible for coordinating and designing the inservice, and 2) implementing a "trainer of trainers" model (which we'll explain in detail below).

A. Finding an Inservice Coordinator

Costs are extremely important to school district personnel, and will be a major consideration when decisions about inservice are made. Districts will be tempted to depend on special education teachers to conduct inservice in addition to carrying out their regular classroom responsibilities. Our experience in San Francisco suggests that this is a mistake. Our most highly motivated teachers found it almost impossible to conduct all the inservice sessions needed for their schools, when REACH phased out its support in the third year of the project.

To give an idea of what time and personnel costs were for Project REACH, we used two half-time staff people to coordinate and design inservice for five school sites (which contained 3,600 able-bodied students, 275 regular education teachers, and nine special education teachers). When making the type of presentations summarized in the Inservice Lesson Plans (see Chapter 5), we were assisted by the special class teacher, student teacher, or students from the local university.

The initial year of the coordinator's job will be the most difficult, since set-up requires approximately 20 working hours per week. Following the implementation of a trainer-of-trainers model with its use of volunteers and other staff, the coordinator could spend less time on direct service delivery, and more time on monitoring and evaluating the program.

Rather than asking special education teachers to conduct all the inservice, we suggest that an inservice coordinator be appointed from among existing school district support staff (e.g., supervisory teachers, program specialists, school psychologists, or anyone else knowledgeable about disability who doesn't have direct classroom responsibility). This person's integration activities could then be made an authorized part of the support role.

B. Using the Trainer-of-Trainers Model

This model is one in which personnel who've successfully developed and conducted inservice activities train others ("second-generation" trainers) to rep icate and/or adapt the original model. In the REACH Project, we conducted all the initial inservice training ourselves. Later, we taught others (teachers, middle school students, program specialists, and parents) to conduct REACH activities so that we could free ourselves for other tasks (such as getting the peer tutoring program going, working with teachers on curriculum, monitoring and evaluating activities, etc.). An equally important goal was to ensure that integration would continue once we left the district. The trainer-of-trainers model is particularly useful in achieving this goal because it allows a project that might have begun as one person's "baby" to become incorporated into the larger system. Each new generation of trainers feels a sense of ownership for the model, thereby increasing the likelihood that the inservice activities will continue in spite of personnel changes or other realities of school district life.

C. General Points to Remember in Using the Trainer-of-Trainers Model

The trainer of trainers model is like other inservice practices in that its success is dependent on following these basic procedures:

- observation - talk to the site administrator and set up a time to observe the regular and special education students.
- needs Assessment - conduct a school site needs assessment and get the site involved with the planning.
- individualization - design the training based on the site's needs.
- Logistics - predetermine time and staff available; ensure a supply of appropriate teaching materials.
- credibility - don't make promises that can't be kept; answer questions honestly; if you can't answer something, say so.
- content - prepare relevant content and present it comprehensibly.
- follow up - supply activities that will offer follow up support for the presentation.

Basic Steps in Training "Second Generation" Trainers

Once we'd given our presentations often enough to feel comfortable imparting our techniques to others, we began teaching various groups of people to be "second generation" trainers. We found that the following sequence of steps was effective, whether we were dealing with highly-trained educators or middle school students:

- having them familiarize themselves with the Inservice Lesson Plans (see Chapter 5)
- asking the second generation trainer to observe while the REACH staff (or other first generation trainers) conducted inservice
- having the second-generation trainers discuss questions and concerns that came up during their observations with the REACH staff member (or other first generation trainer)
- team teaching with a first generation trainer (during which the latter would assume the role of assistant)
- allowing the second generation trainer to conduct the training independently, with a first generation trainer observing the session.

Our goal in using this format was to make sure that key concepts were presented, while allowing each second generation trainer to make appropriate adaptations to his or her own style. We allowed as much time in the fourth and fifth steps as was necessary, depending on the experience and maturity of the individual being trained.

Recruiting Second Generation Trainers

Motivation is the major quality to look for in recruiting second generation trainers. We trained anybody who was interested in learning to lead inservice sessions, but we especially liked to work with people who were likely to remain associated with the schools after our project ended. To help you select potential second generation teachers in your school district, we offer some brief descriptions of the people we trained during Project REACH.

Training District Program Specialists

The San Francisco Unified School District identified four program specialists (i.e., supervisory teachers with administrative and advisory responsibilities) as the people who would do the training at schools not directly served by REACH. These four specialists were responsible for overseeing all classes of severely disabled students in San Francisco. When we began

working with them, we first invited them to observe inservice activities that were already occurring in the REACH schools, then arranged a time to meet with them to dis- cuss their questions and concerns. Although they were eager to conduct their own inservice, they had some questions about our format -- in particular about the number of staff required and the amount of time neded to replicate our model. We encouraged them to brainstorm solutions to these concerns. After reemphasizing that each site is unique and that they should feel free to make adaptations accordingly, we supplied them with lesson plans as guidelines, and suggested that additions and deletions be made as needed.

The program specialists took our lesson plans, conducted a needs assessment (see the Appendix) at the school site where they were going to do inservice, made adaptations as needed, then conducted their own training sessions. We offered to assist them but they made it clear that they wanted to do it alone -- a concept we strongly supported. As it turned out, both the school site staff and the program specialists reported great success with the inservice. They said it was an extremely rewarding experience. In fact, they were ready, willing, and eager to go out and train the world (or at least San Francisco Unified School District).

Training the Teachers of Severely Disabled Students

At two of the Project REACH sites, the teachers of severely disabled students wanted to lead the inservice training. They felt that their involvement would greatly enhance the training and would help ensure the longevity of the inservice program at their school.

These teachers were experts in the field of severely disabled education and were therefore well prepared to answer questions from the field. Since we were already conducting sessions at their sites, it was relatively easy for them to observe the sessions, and participate to the extent that their schedules permitted. We would meet with the teachers before or after school to discuss questions or concerns. Their participation had a number of positive results. Some of the pluses were:

- they were better able to answer questions about their severely disabled students than we were.
- as questions or problems arose on-site, the regular education students identified the teachers as key people in solving problems rather than turning to the REACH staff.
- they would be able to carry on the training when we left, either by doing the activities themselves or by training others to carry on the training.

Training University Students (Pre-Service Teachers)

The San Francisco State University students we selected to undergo training were people who'd been in the special education department for at least two semesters. Generally, they'd all had courses in the field of education for people with severe disabilities, so they could answer questions from regular education students and staff with a high degree of accuracy.

Because of their background, we were able to train them very quickly, following the sequence of steps described in Chapter 4 . They observed two inservice sessions (during which we were training regular education students), asked questions at break times, then gradually took over the activities. This turned out to be a particularly cost- and time-effective method of training second generation trainers, since the San Francisco State students were being trained at the same time in methods of working with the children. Thus, we didn't need to spend extra time training them separately.

Training Peer Tutors

Whether or not you have access to university students or special education teachers, you may also wish to train regular education students as second generation trainers. We experimented with this process at one middle school and were very pleased with the results: students <u>can</u> act as very effective inservice leaders. Students who work in the special education classroom as peer tutors can supplement the standard inservice content with reports of their personal experiences. They may also be more credible to their peers than adult presenters.

There were some problems in dealing with this group, though. For example:

- they required longer and more intensive training than adults with a background in special education
- their public speaking skills often required attention
- their presence in the school was transient.

Because of the last problem, we chose to train sixth graders at our middle school, since we could expect them to be at the site for three years.

The training process used with peer tutors was similar to that for adults, with the following additional steps:

- tutors worked in small groups - so that each group of tutors learned the materials and procedures used at a single "learning station" (i.e., learning center. see Chapter 5)

- they met at lunch hour to practice on each other, using props, and had a total of four hours rehearsal before ever meeting an "audience"

- each tutor received an outline of the station content and was assigned particular parts of the content to memorize

- tutors were always paired for moral support and help with content - so that two (and sometimes) three tutors ran a single station

- opportunities to actually run the stations came at a parent open house and at a city-wide Awareness Fair for People with Special Needs

Training of Parent Trainers

In addition to the people already described, REACH taught parents to be second generation trainers. The process we used is fully described in another manual written by REACH staff: Parents and Community Together (the PACT). Our rationale for including parents was that a core group of parent volunteers who thought the REACH activities were meaningful would be committed to either doing the inservice themselves, or seeing that their child's school made inservice part of the yearly curriculum.

The advantages of using parents as trainers are:

- their schedules may be more flexible than those of school staff

- school systems tend to listen to parents more than to school personnel; if parents request inservice, the schools are likely to respond positively

- parents of disabled children are particularly credible presenters because of their personal experiences with disability

5. INSERVICE LESSON PLANS*

We've presented the activities in this chapter to a variety of audiences: kindergarten children, elementary and middle school classes, school principals and parent groups. The material we've included here has worked well for us and for the classroom teachers, program specialists and parents from the San Mateo, California, Westchester County, New York and San Francisco schools who've tried them. Any of your "second-generation" trainers (see the previous chapter) could also present these lesson plans, although we particularly recommend that disabled people from your community be recruited as presenters. We've found that peer tutors or special friends are effective participants in a presentation, since their first-hand experience with severely disabled schoolmates adds a down-to-earth quality to any presentation.

Because these lesson plans or modules comprise the informational component of our tri-level inservice model (see model diagram, p. 3), they play an important part in our efforts to change attitudes and behavior. They're a necessary component of the total plan, but they're not sufficient in themselves to create lasting change. As we've tried to stress, informational presentations need to be accompanied by day-to-day modeling of positive behavior toward students with severe disabilities and by helping others to view these students positively through structured interactions. We'd also like to note that you can maximize the effectiveness of your information presentations by following these suggestions:

- Draw on existing resources that deal with single disabilities and adapt them so that they're suitable for addressing multiple disabilites

  Although many excellent resources are available to people interested in designing inservice presentations for mainstream settings, most deal with single disabilities: deafness, blindness, orthopedic impairment, learning handicaps, or mental retardation. It's difficult to find activity guides that deal with the needs of people who have severe or multiple disabilities. But there are exceptional publications from Honolulu and Milwaukee (see Voeltz, 1981; Nietupski, 1980). Our bibliography (Chapter 8) lists additional resources which we recommend to anyone planning inservice activities.

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* These lesson plans were conceptualized with the assistance of Kathy Gee, Nan Graham, Chesca Piuma and Ann Halvorsen.

- Key your presentation to the the needs of a particular school

  No two school sites are alike. Regular education staff and students may differ tremendously in their experiences with disabled people. Before planning attitude-change activities, we suggest you use the checklists in Chapter 3 and the Needs Assessment in the Appendix to assess school staff and students' views of severely disabled people. You may then want to offer administrators and faculty a list of the Inservice Modules we present here so that they can choose those that best suit their school's needs.

- Personalize your presentations

  You can adapt the content of the lesson plans presented here to reflect the individual personalities and characteristics of the disabled students who attend each school site. Although the uninitiated may think severely disabled students are a homogeneous group, those who work with these students recognize their diversity. Use media that feature students like those in your particular school. For example, a project in Hawaii developed individual slide presentations, photographed on-site in each individual school where they worked (see Chapter 7 for suggestions on creating your own media). You can also adapt the learning stations described later in this chapter to reflect the particular characteristics of your students. For example, you can teach the specific communication systems and vocabulary students actually use at a particular site rather than giving out a blurb on communication in general.

- Plan for longevity

  Inservice programs are often begun because of some external stimulus. A concerned parent starts a special friends program at her daughter's school, a university receives a grant to study integration, or the International Year of Disabled Persons sparks interest in attitude change efforts. What will happen when the original stimulus fades, when the parent moves or the grant ends? It's important to make sure that the stimulus for inservice activities becomes internal -- that the activities become a part of the school's environment. We recommend that you:

  - use existing school curricula -- social studies, health or science -- and incorporate a unit on disability awareness that can be repeated yearly

- use the trainer-of-trainers model -- teach older students, PTA members, or district level resource personnel to make inservice presentations

- become a part of school tradition -- if eighth graders gain visibility as peer tutors, then sixth graders will look forward to that status.

The modules that follow are arranged in order of complexity. Thus Module 1, level 1 is designed for young children; level 2 for older children, etc. We recommend that all the students you train go through the awareness level, at the very minimum. Just how many of the modules you present will depend on students' previous experience with disabled people, which you can assess using the checklist in Chapter 3.

Module 1 - Awareness Presentations: Same and Different

Level 1: Pre-School, Kindergarten, First Grade

Time: 30 minutes

Objectives:

- The participants will learn about the severely disabled students who attend their school.
- The participants will be able to identify several ways in which developmentally disabled people are the same as and different from themselves.

Materials:

- two combs
- two toothbrushes
- two spoons

Personnel: One discussion leader (may be special education staff, parent volunteer, regular education staff, resource person, or older student).

Activities:

1. Introduce yourself. State the goals of the presentation simply and briefly, and stop from time to time to check that the children understand you. For example, "We're going to talk about some new kids in your school. They are disabled. Can you say disabled? That means that some of them can't see, or talk, or walk the same way you do. What does disabled mean?" (students answer)

2. Quickly ascertain students' comprehension of the concept "same" and "different". If their understanding is shaky, teach the concepts as follows.

   a. Teach same. Display two matching objects. Tell the children that "we say these are the same." Display two other matching objects. Ask if they are the same. Elicit group oral response. Continue until responses are correct.

   b. Teach different. Display two mismatched objects. Tell the children that "we say these are different." Display two other mismatched objects. Ask if they're different. Elicit group oral responses and continue until responses are correct.

c. Present pairs of objects at random, some matched, some mismatched. Ask "what are these, same or different" and elicit group oral responses until firm.

3. State that people can be the same and people can be different.

   a. Show a picture of a child with physical disabilities. Say, "this girl is different from some of us. She uses a walker to get around. She is disabled. What are some other ways she's different?" (e.g., hair color, wears protective helmet).

   b. Say, "but this girl is the same as we are in lots of ways. She likes to play, she has friends..." Elicit other ways students with disabilities are the same as nondisabled students (e.g., have parents, learn in school, get mad sometimes).

4. Leave time for questions and discussion about the severely disabled students in the children's school. Ask if they've met any of the severely disabled students in the playground or in the hall.

Follow-up suggestions:

1. Schedule a disabled visitor from the community.

2. Leave pictures of people with disabilities with the classroom teacher so that the children can view and discuss them again the next day.

3. Make an "experience chart". Children can dictate questions and statements about "people who are different".

4. Draw same and different pictures (this is difficult for kindergarten). Each child folds a large sheet of paper in half, draws someone "the same as you" on one half, and "someone different from you" on the other half. Staff moves around the room as children draw, eliciting children's explanations of the drawing, and writing these verbatim on the drawings.

Module 1

Level 2: Older Students (Elementary, Middle, High School)

Time: 45 minutes

Objectives:

- The participants will know that there are disabled students who attend their school.
- The participants will use appropriate vocabulary to describe developmental disabilities.
- The participants will identify ways in which developmentally disabled persons are like and unlike themselves.

Materials:

- Short film: Harold or Paige (Encyclopedia Britannica) or Keep on Walking (March of Dimes) or David (Film Maker's Library) (see Chapter 8)
- Blackboard or overhead projector

Personnel:

One discussion leader (May be special education staff, parent volunteer, regular education staff, resource person, student leader. We strongly recommend participation by a peer tutor if available.)

Activities:*

1. Introduce self. Introduce peer tutors or special friends if present. Write the objectives of the presentation on board. Explain that the severely disabled students attend classes taught by special education teachers, but that they will be in the lunchroom, halls, yard, etc., with everybody else.

2. List vocabulary words used to describe disabilities and disabled persons on the board.

   a. List inappropriate words (four eyes, retard, etc.). List these first, asking students to supply them (if they can't, suggest some). Eliciting these terms first clears the air and provides a good opening for later dialogue. Elicit terms used to describe less extreme "disabilities" such as "fatso" or "metal mouth". Make the point that none of us is perfect -- we all have disabilities of some sort.

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* Based on an activity described in Nietupski, et al., 1980.

b. List some appropriate words by asking students, "What do you call somebody who can't hear?" Besides eliciting the appropriate terms for various disabilities (e.g., deaf, mentally retarded), see if the students are aware of the distinction between disability (the limitation imposed by a physical or mental impairment) and handicap (the limitations imposed by society's reaction to disability). One of the slogans of the National Association for Retarded Citizens is "Your attitude is my biggest handicap".

3. Get ready to show the film. Since we have yet to find a short, suitable film dealing with severely or multiply disabled people, we first use one of the three films listed to start discussion on disabilities. Later, we talk about multiple impairments. We attempt to match the age of the audience members to the age of the central character in the film. David is most appropriate for high school/middle school audiences; Harold is appropriate for upper elementary and middle school, and Keep on Walking and Paige for elementary school. (see Chapter 8 bibliography)

   a. Introduce film. Ask students to look for ways in which the star of the film is like and unlike themselves.

      1) Harold is blind; he attends a regular middle school in San Francisco. He is shown in school and in the community.

      2) Paige has Down's syndrome. She attends a regular elementary school. Her story is told by Paige's nondisabled sister.

      3) Marty Mimmack (Keep on Walking) was born with a physical disability -- he doesn't have arms. He attends a regular school, and is shown answering questions from an elementary school class.

      4) David is a young adult with Down's syndrome. He is an extremely capable individual and is an outstanding model showing what a mentaly retarded person can do.

   b. After viewing the film, discuss it.

      1) How is the central character different from many of us? (e.g., special aids used, speech (Paige), ways of getting around).

2) How is the central character like us? (e.g., likes to have fun, has same needs for survival, has family and friends, is learning similar things).

3) Could you be friends with (would you hang out with) Harold, Paige, David, or Marty? Do you know anyone with a disability?

4. Allow time for questions and discussion about the classes of severely handicapped students in the student's own school.

Follow-up suggestions:

1. Add appropriate disability words to students' vocabulary/spelling lists.

2. Place a question box in the room, and ask all students to write (or dictate) at least one question. Answers can be given at the next presentation. These questions can provide excellent feedback to discussion leaders. They also allow students to express themselves openly.

3. Schedule a disabled guest speaker from the community.

4. Begin a journal, writing booklet, or collection of drawings related to disabilities.

Module 2 - Learning Stations 1, 2 and 3: Vision, Communication and Locomotion

Level: Suits second grade through adults with minor modifications in language and pacing.

Locomotion

This module is a disability simulation -- it shows participants how disabled people can compensate for their physical limitations through the use of alternate sensory modalities, prosthetic devices, and communication systems. Participants also engage in values clarification through role-playing.

At the beginning of the period, participants are divided into groups. Each group rotates through the learning stations. After all stations have been completed by each group, the participants join together in a summary discussion.

Time: 45 minutes for the whole module; seven to 10 minutes for each section.

Personnel: one adult and/or two peer tutors per station.

Vision Station

Objectives:

- Participants will identify objects by using senses other than vision.
- Participants will brainstorm ways of assisting blind students.

Materials:

- blindfolds
- pencil and paper for each participant
- items to stimulate the other four senses. Examples are: smell - lemon rind, rubber eraser, pickle, chocolate bar; taste - raisin, nut, small pieces of candy, small pieces of orange or lemon peel; touch - small calculator, tape measure, seashell; hearing - bell, zipper, music box.

Activities:

1. Name the five senses. Ask what disability a person has who has limited vision. Tell students that some of the students in the severely disabled class are blind. Ask if participants would like to experience

being blind. Tell them that this will involve being blindfolded for about 10 minutes. Tell participants that no tricks will be played on them and that if they feel uncomfortable they may sit out and observe. Explain to younger students that they should raise their hands when they know what the item is that they're sensing. When everyone has had a turn, tap someone on the shoulder to identify the object.

2. Blindfold participants.

3. Take one item from each sense area (i.e., a raisin for tasting, a bell for hearing, etc.) and present it to each participant. Tell younger students to remain silent until you let them know that each has a single item. Then have them take turns identifying the objects verbally. Older students should write down the names of the items as they're presented, as best they can. By the end of the activity, make sure that each student has had a chance to experience all four sense areas.

4. When all items have been presented, have participants remove their blindfolds. Ask how they felt during the activity. Stress the ways blind people can compensate for loss of vision with other senses. Ask older students how they felt writing their responses while blindfolded. Emphasize the fact that the participants learned by using other senses than vision. Ask participants to name the senses they used in this activity.

5. Discuss the ways a blind, severely disabled student could function in this school. If a special friend/peer tutor is present, he or she could help participants brainstorm ways to make the building and classroom more accessible -- i.e., tactile cues help identify the room, scent and sound help identify the cafeteria, keeping classroom furniture arrangement constant helps the student avoid obstacles.

Communication Station

Objectives:

- Participants will be able to name and give an example of several verbal and nonverbal communication systems used by most people.

- Participants will be able to communicate by using alternative communication systems, a communication board, a picture communication booklet, gestures, and sign language.

Materials:

- a communication board
- a picture communication booklet
- three large pictures: a food item, a baby, and a television set.

Activities:

1. Ask, "how do we communicate?" Elicit examples from participants: speech, hearing, writing, facial expressions, pictures (i.e., international road signs), gestures, signals (i.e., football referee).

2. Ask, "how do severely disabled people communicate?" Elicit examples from participants. The special friend/peer tutor can give specific examples from this school (e.g., facial expression, vocalization, communication board, picture booklets, sign language).

3. Identify pictures without words. Ask for volunteer who will describe something they see without talking. Show one picture to one participant without letting others in the group see the picture. Have him or her act out what he or she sees. (This activity is similar to the game, charades.) Present all three pictures to three volunteers in order of increasing difficulty (i.e., candy, baby, t.v.). When the pictures have been identified, point out that the task would have been easier if the students had some knowledge of a shared communication system.

4. Use the communication board and booklet. Explain how a communication board works. Demonstrate a brief message -- e.g., I want a drink. Allow participants to use the board and booklet to communicate messages to each other.

5. Teach five specific signs used by severely disabled students in this school. Teach them imitatively ("do what I do"), the expressively ("sign hi"), then receptively ("what does this sign mean?"). We choose signs that are likely to be used in play- ground, hallway, or cafeteria interactions, such as hi, bye, eat, play, and drink.

Locomotion Station

Objectives:

- Participants will be able to state several wheelchair safety rules.

- Participants will be able to identify several communication courtesies.
- Participants will be able to name several problems encountered by wheelchair and walker users.

Materials:

- At least two wheelchairs -- one athletic model, one standard
- walker, sling-walker, or whatever locomotion devices are used in your school
- three traffic cones to set up an obstacle course.

Activities:

1. Wheelchair safety demonstration.
   a. Always make sure that the brakes are on when getting in or out of the chair.
   b. Always put the brakes on when the wheelchair is "parked".
   c. Release both brakes before trying to move the chair.
   d. Hands should be placed on the steel rims of the wheels rather than on the tires.
   e. Demonstrate how to move the wheels for turning right, left, and making 180° turns.
2. Allow students to take turns running the obstacle course, using wheelchairs and walkers. An alternative to setting up an obstacle course is to use naturally-occurring school obstacles. Students can be directed to cross the room, get a book from the bookcase, go in and out of the classroom doorways, go to the water fountain.
   a. While some students are using the equipment, discuss with others the problems of access in their school. For example, can a person using a wheelchair reach water fountains, cafeteria counters, etc.? How accessible is the yard, the auditorium, the office? How could difficult-to-reach areas be made accessible?

3. Role-play communication courtesy problems.

   a. Two students talk about a person in a wheelchair. How does it feel to be treated as though you weren't present?

   b. One student pushes another without talking. How does it feel to be treated as if you were helpless and passive?

   c. Push a student in a wheelchair and "park" the chair so that the student is facing a wall or away from others. How does spatial arrangement affect communication?

4. Summarize the above activities with courtesy suggestions elicited from students: i.e., always talk to and not about severely disabled students; always talk to a severely disabled person you're assisting. Ask him or her if he or she wants help. If they can't communicate, ask a teacher or use common courtesy -- let them see who you are. Tell them what's going on. Find out where they'd like to go. Walk and push chairs at a normal walking pace; park wheelchairs so that people in chairs are facing others. Put yourself in their place and treat them as you'd like to be treated.

General Group Discussion (to be conducted after all participants have gone through the three learning stations)

1. How did you feel as you went through the stations? Were any activities particularly difficult? Why?

2. What did you learn from these activities? How are people with disabilities the same as nondisabled people?

3. Will you act differently toward the next disabled person you meet? If so, what will you do differently?

4. How did these activities affect the way you feel about the severely disabled students in your school?

5. Leave time for questions about the severely disabled students' particular needs.

Follow-up suggestions:

1. Complete the "Could You Still?" form from the KIDS Project. (See Chapter 5, Module 6)

2. Perform an accessibility survey. Use the "Could Tracy Get Around Your School" form from LINC Services. (See Chapter 5, Module 5) Students work in pairs to check out school building and/or community sites.

3. Continue to add to the journal or the booklet on disability awareness. Students can write or draw their reactions to the learning stations. For example, choose one station, describe your feelings as you went through the activities, tell how you are like and unlike a person with that disabilty, list things to remember when interacting with a disabled person.

Module 3 - Learning Stations 4 and 5: Mental Retardation and Disability Aids as Tools

Level: Suits second grade through adult with minor modifications in language and pacing.

This module is a disability simulation - it shows participants how disabled people can compensate for their physical limitations through the use of alternate sensory modalities, prosthetic devices and communication systems. Participants also engage in values clarification through role-playing.

(At the beginning of the period, participants are divided into groups. Each group rotates through the learning stations. After all stations have been completed by each group, the participants join together in a summary discussion.)

Time: 45 minutes for the whole module; 10 to 15 minutes for each station.

Personnel: one adult and/or two peer tutors per station.

Mental Retardation Station

Objectives:

- Participants will be able to state how they feel after experiencing the results of failing to meet our cultural norms for "smartness" and speed.
- Participants will be able to state several ways in which cues/task analysis help us learn.

Activities:

1. Intelligence Test

Materials:

- 15 small objects (we use plastic animals, dollhouse furniture, etc.)
- paper and pencil for all participants
- paper to cover the small objects.

a. Pass out paper and pencil. Tell people that you are going to test them to see how smart they are. Tell them you want them to write down all the objects you show them.

Test 1 - Put objects in a pile. Give them at least 15 objects. Give people five seconds to look at objects. Cover the objects. Tell them to write down all the items they saw.

Test 2 - Take away five objects. Make sure they are not in a pile. Only give them five seconds to look at the objects. Cover the objects. Tell them to write down what they saw.

Test 3 - Show people seven objects. Give them 10 seconds to see the objects. Tell them to write down what they saw.

b. Ask, "How did you feel when I gave test 1? What about test 2? How did I make the test easier? Was it a fair test?" Ask questions 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 of the puzzle activity. (see the following pages)

2. Cues/Task Analysis

Materials:

- one plain puzzle for each person
- a puzzle with a picture on it for each person
- a pattern of a puzzle.

a. Give each participant a plain puzzle. Tell them that this is a test to assess how smart they are. Tell them they have two minutes in which to do the activity. While they're doing the puzzle, tell them how slow they are or say things like "Aren't you finished? What's the matter with you, you're certainly not as bright as the other group", etc.

b. When the time is up, give them the puzzle with the cut-up picture on it. Continue to give them a hard time about being slow. Give them two minutes to work on the puzzle. If they still can't complete the puzzle, show them the uncut pattern of the puzzle.

c. Ask, 1) "How did you feel while I was calling you names? 2) How would you feel if you had this kind of pressure on you all the time? 3) How might you act or feel? 4) How did I make the activity easier? 5) Do you see any relationship between this activity and how people who are mentally retarded may feel or act? 6) What can you do to help people who are mentally retarded learn activities or tasks? 7) Can mentally retarded people learn?

Disability Aids as Tools Station*

Objectives:

- Participants will be able to name some tools that we all use. Prosthetic aids are just another sort of tool.
- Participants will experience physical disabilities and will use disability aids employed by disabled persons.

Materials: canned peaches or other food to sample

- spoon aids and spoons
- standard plates or bowl
- bowl with shaped side
- masking tape
- scoop plate
- cutaway cup
- regular cup
- nonslip mat
- hammer
- universal cuff
- bottle opener
- ties to bandage arms for range limitation
- ruler
- basket or bag large enough to hold/conceal all of the above tools

Activities:

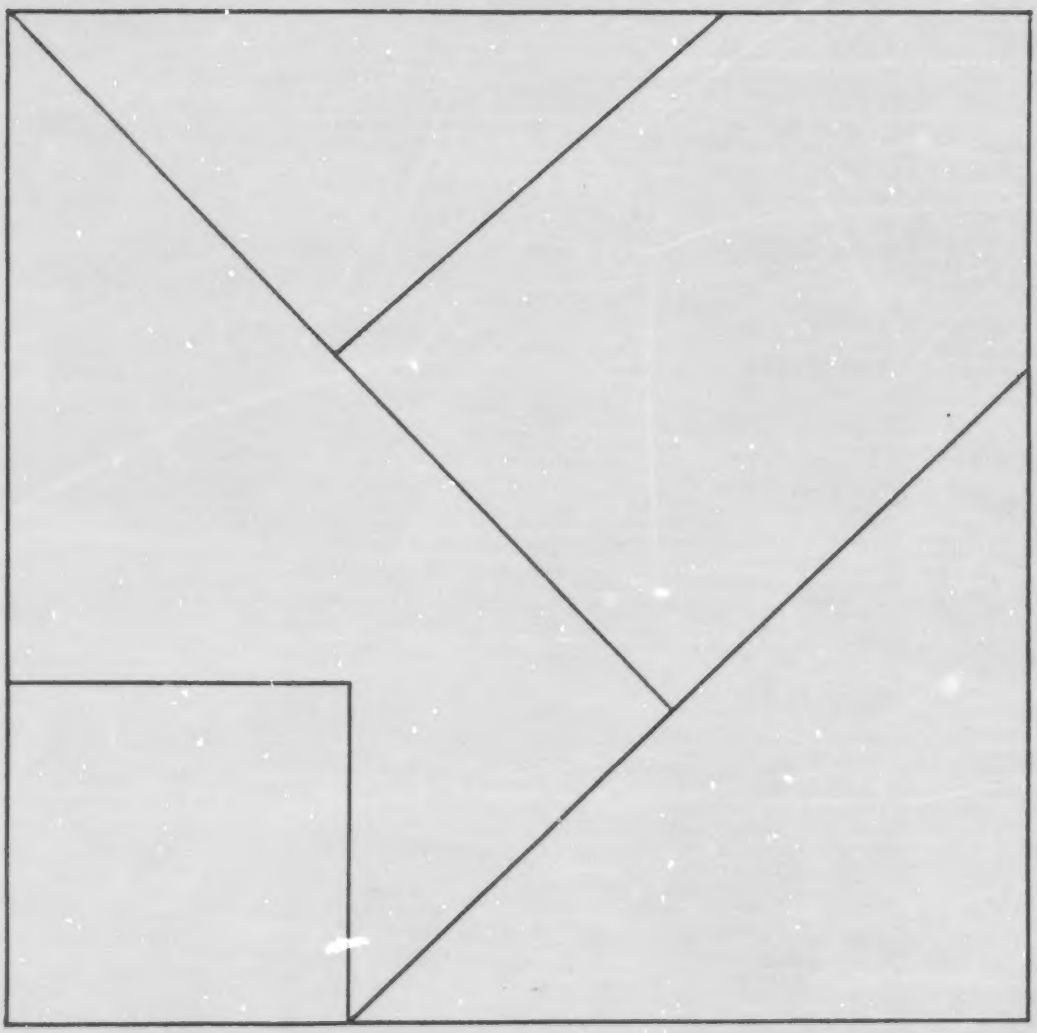
1. Introduce yourself. Rummage dramatically in bag. Produce, in succession, a hamner, ruler, bottle opener. Say, "what does this do?" as you produce each one. Say, "what do these things have in common?" (They're all tools -- they help us work more easily and efficiently.) Say, "we're going to look at tools some disabled persons use."

2. Ask for a volunteer. Tape the volunteer's fingers together. Explain that many severely disabled persons have muscular problems that restrict their use of their limbs. Other participants watch while the volunteer tries to eat from a regular dish, using an unadapted spoon. Show how a nonslip mat can help.

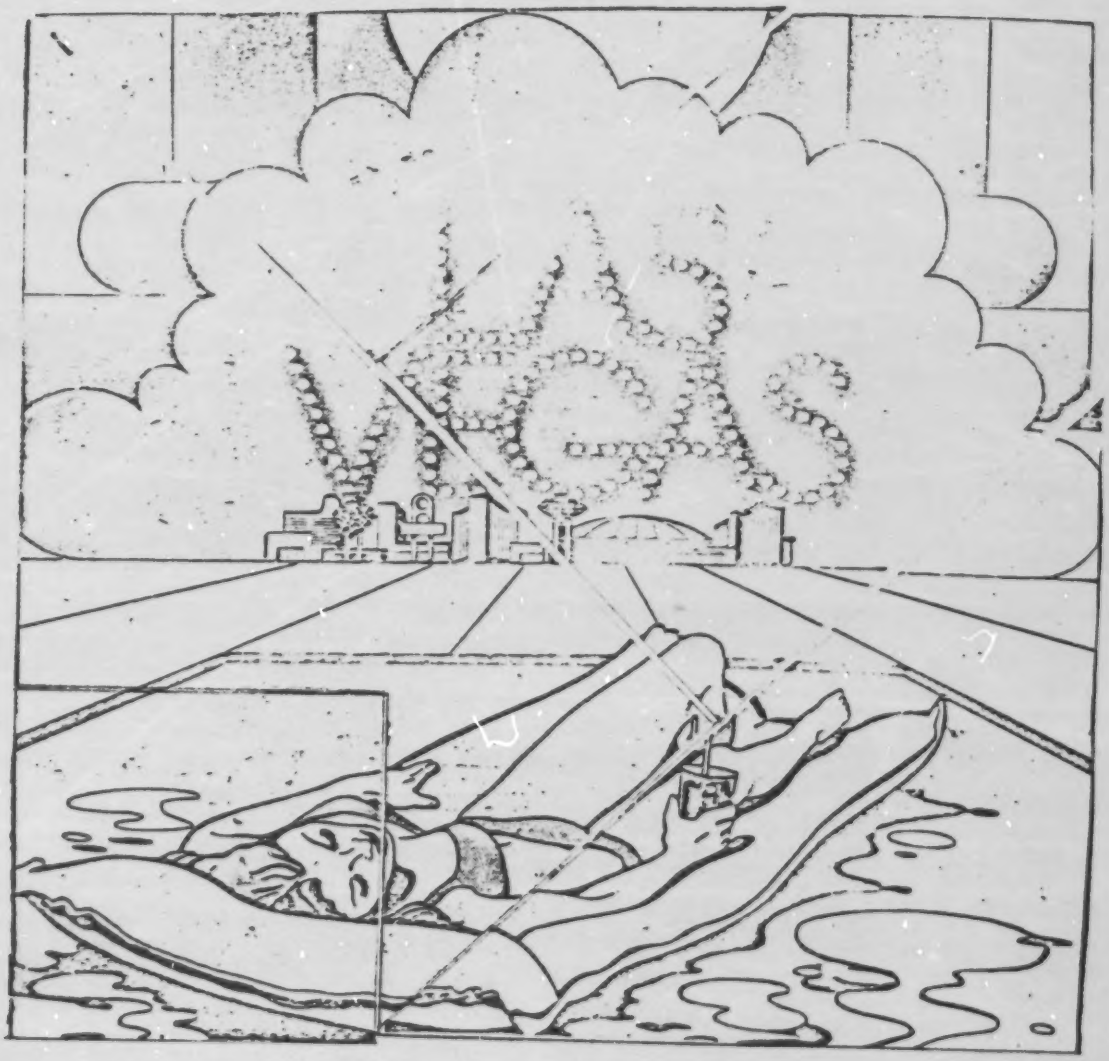
3. Produce spoon aids, a universal cuff and a shaped bowl. Allow the volunteer to try using these "tools". Explain that the spoon aid is used to hold the spoon level to avoid spilling. Point out that everyone likes to be independent. Demonstrate the use of a universal cuff as an aid to holding the spoon.

* Suggested by an activity in Voeltz, Special Friends Trainer's Manual (see References)

ANSWER TO PUZZLE TASK



Puzzle With Picture Cue



4. Ask for another volunteer. Have her try to drink from an ordinary cup/glass with her head bent forward as a person does who has difficulties with head control. Produce a cutout cup. Let the volunteer try this.

5. Discussion: How did the volunteers feel with others watching them? How can tasks be changed so that people with disabilities can be independent? What other special "tools" have you seen used by disabled people?

General Group Discussion (to be conducted after everyone goes through both learning stations)

1. How did you feel as you went through the stations? Were any activities particularly difficult? Why?

2. What did you learn from these activities? How are people with disabilities the same as non-disabled people?

3. Will you act differently towards the next disabled person you meet? If so, what will you do differently?

4. How did these activities affect the way you feel about the severely disabled students in your school?

5. Leave time for questions about the severely disabled students' particular needs.

Follow-up Suggestions

1. Schedule a disabled guest speaker from the community.

2. View films from the People You'd Like to Know series, Encyclopedia Britannica. (see Chapter 8, Films section)

3. Add to a journal or booklet on Disability Awareness. Students may write or draw their reactions to one of the stations: describe their feelings, tell how they are like or unlike a person with that disability, list things to remember when interacting with a disabled person.

4 Imagine you are teaching visitors from another culture to use our American money. What cue/clues could you give them to help them use our system? Write a task analysis to help them. In other words, list the cues you would use to discriminate coins and bills.

5. Ask students to invent/develop a disability aid. Have students present their products to the class.

Module 4 - Civil Rights and Disabled People (this lesson can be incorporated into a social studies curriculum)

Level: 5th grade on up

Time: 45 minutes

Objectives:

- Participants will be able to discuss the past and present rights of disabled people as guaranteed by PL 94-142 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act.
- Participants will be able to define the meaning of equal and discriminatory education.
- Participants will be able to discriminate between normalized and nonnormalized treatment.

Materials:

- Overhead projector
- Transparency of cartoon showing the steps up to a building. (see p. 55)
- Transparency: Could Tracy Get Around Your School? (see p. 54)
- Transparency: David (see p. 56)
- Transparency listing the six principles of PL 94-142.

1. Zero reject
2. Nondiscriminatory assessment
3. Individual Education Plans
4. Least Restrictive Environment
6. Due Process
6. Parent Participation

Personnel: one discussion leader

Activities:

(Note: Module 4 deals with a complex issue. We offer more activities here than can be completed in a 45 minute period. Choose those activities that will best suit your audience.)

1. Discussion: Project the cartoon illustrating lack of access. State, "in the past, disabled people had different civil rights than nondisabled people. For example, if there were architectural barriers in the

neighborhood public school, or at their job site, that was just 'too bad' for the disabled person." Ask participants to give examples of other barriers they or their families may have experienced (e.g., attitudinal, linguistic, physical).

2. Discussion: Public Law 94-142 - 'Education for All Handicapped Children Act,' passed in 1975 - and section 504 regulations of the Rehabilitation Act, passed in 1977. Both laws make it illegal to discriminate against people on the basis of disability. Project "Tracy" transparency. These laws are modeled on civil rights legislation originally written to protect the rights of racial minorities. They guarantee an equal, free, and appropriate education for all disabled children. It is because of these laws that the class of children with severe disabilities are attending public schools. Does your school have architectural barriers that discriminate against people like Tracy?

3. Glurks and Whees. Imagine that you live in another country. There are two kinds of people in this country - the glurks and the whees. The glurks walk on two feet, use speech to communicate; the whees ride in golfcarts and use sign language. Imagine that you are _____ (insert name of school administrator) and you have to decide which students will come to your school. Tell whether the following statements are fair or unfair ways of deciding:

   a. Most of the people in this neighborhood are whees. If a student is too glurky, he should not go to our neighborhood school.

   b. The teachers and I speak the whee language. Our school admission tests are given in whee. If a student doesn't speak whee, she shouldn't go to our school.

   c. Our school teaches the things whees need to know in order to be successful in later life. We teach the same way to everybody. If the glurks don't like it, too bad.

   d. We have two kinds of schools -- schools for whees and schools for glurks. If you're a whee, you go to a whee school. If you're a glurk, you go to a glurk school.

   e. Once we've decided whether you're a whee or a glurk, you keep that label forever.

f. We are experts at our school. We know what's best for whees and glurks. If you or your parents don't agree with what we decide is best for you, too bad.

Would you like to live in that country? Why or why not? Display the list of six principles of PL 94-142. Explain the six principles as they relate to the previous decision.

4. Normalization. State, "sometimes, people who mean well treat disabled people as though they weren't people. They stereotype them. They react to the disability rather than to the person and treat disabled people differently from others. This is not normal treatment." Display transparency of page 13 of Dignity booklet. (see p. 57) Cover the lower paragraph. Have students read the upper paragraph. Ask, "did the doctor treat Bill normally? Why or why not?" After students give their reactions, uncover the lower paragraph. Let them read it. Ask, "how could Dr. Goodman have normalized his speech ? Do we treat students with severe disabilities 'normally' in this school? Why or why not?" If there's time, use the same format to view additional transparencies from Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute booklets (e.g., p. 14, in Dignity on equal access to education) which are available from the Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, The George Washington University, Washington, DC 20052.

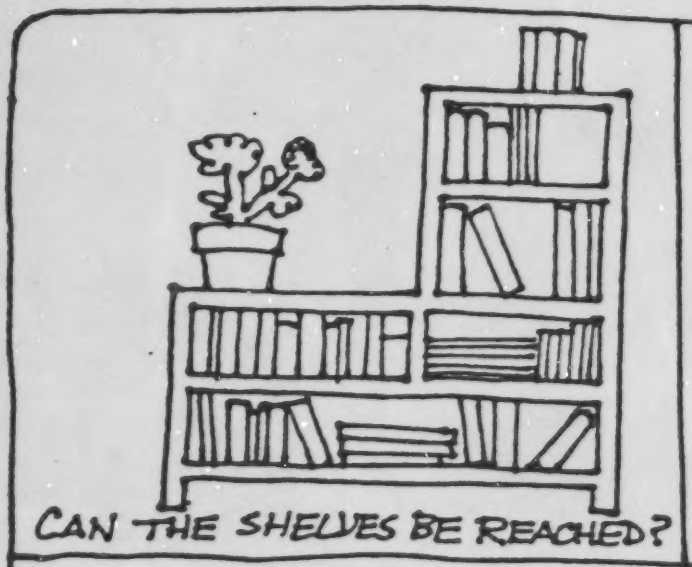
Follow-up:

1. View a film on normalization. See David (a teenager with a developmental disability narrates and acts) or A Day in the Life of Bonnie Consolo (a woman who was born without arms is followed through a day in her life).

2. Using the example on the next page - Could Tracy get around your School? - participants work in pairs to assess the school's or community's accessibility.

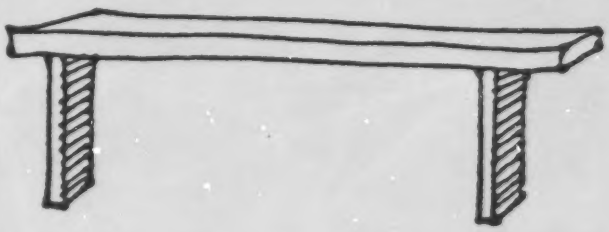
3. Read and review a story for its "nonnormalized" elements (e.g., the disabled character always being sicker, weaker, younger). Use "Stamp Out Handicapism in Books" as a guide (see attached example). Use the examples on the following pages to stimulate discussion.

Could Tracy Get Around Your School?



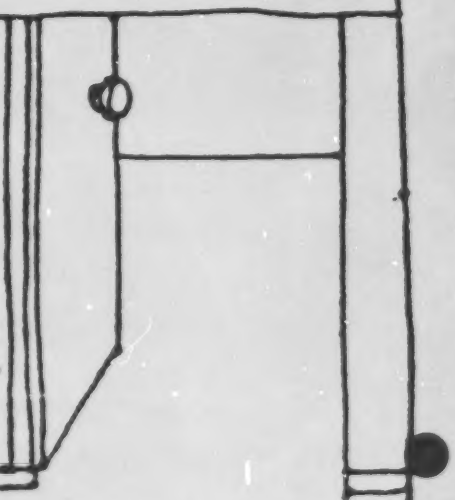
CAN THE SHELVES BE REACHED?

ARE THE TABLES TOO LOW?



CAN THE WATER FOUNTAIN BE REACHED?

ARE THE DOORWAYS TOO NARROW?



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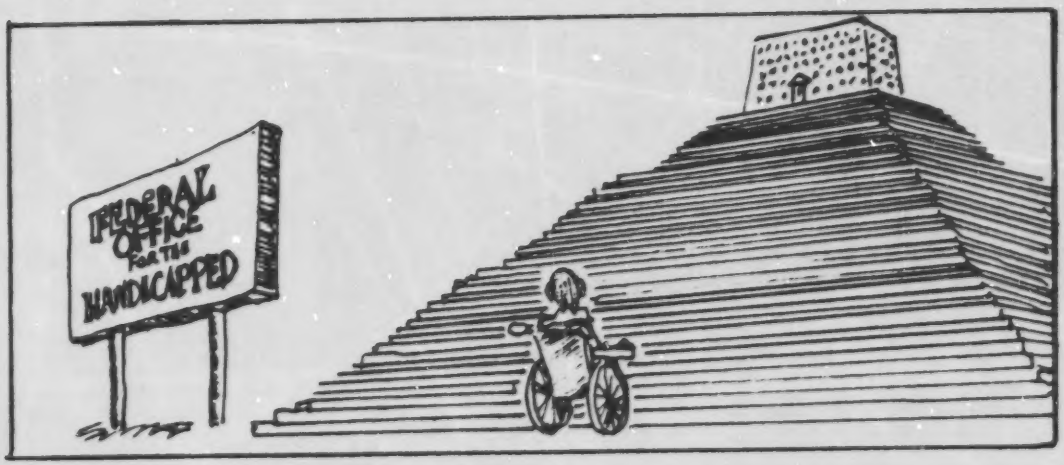

FEDERAL
OFFICE
For The
HANDICAPPED

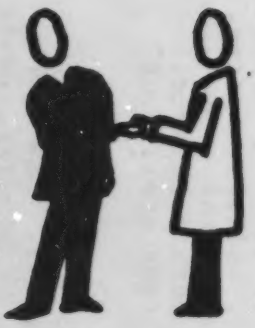
From The invisible battle: Attitudes toward disability. Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, Washington, DC.

David has been an occasional patron of The Coconut, a bar and discotheque, where he goes to socialize and meet potential dates. David, who uses a wheelchair, asks The Coconut's owner to build a ramp so that he can get in and out unassisted. The owner refuses, telling David that he should come to the bar with a friend or, if that's impossible, that any of The Coconut's management staff would be willing to help David inside.

Many of you may feel that The Coconut's owner is being very reasonable in his attitude toward David's patronage and that his offer of help is a generous one. The owner's logic is that the management staff is already paid to accommodate the customers, and the cost of a ramp is probably prohibitive. But what does the prospect of being accompanied and carried in and out do for David's independence and the image of him that is presented to the other customers? Being constantly aided depicts David as being helpless and sets him apart from the other customers, immediately upon his entrance to the bar. David has finally worked through his own fear of appearing alone in public, only to find that wherever he goes he must submit to being treated differently—his disability being the first thing people notice. In fact, the cost of a ramp is usually quite low or the use of another accessible entrance is usually not prohibitive. The costs involved are small in comparison to David's loss of self-esteem and in terms of the extra business generated by The Coconut's accessibility. A facility which is accessible to disabled persons is more usable by *all* persons.

From Dignity. Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, Washington, DC.

13



Mr. Bill Todd is a twenty-eight year old person with Down's Syndrome. He is not feeling well and decides to call his doctor. Dr. Goodman says, "Billy, come into my office. Be a good boy and we will see what's the matter with you."

Mr. Todd is hurt and angry. He does not like being called Billy or being considered a "good boy." He thinks of himself as a man. He works, lives in an apartment, and has a girl friend. He doesn't enjoy being treated or talked to like a child. He wishes Dr. Goodman would treat him just like any other patient. Mr. Todd can't understand why he is called "Billy," while every other man is called "Mr." in the doctor's office.

Module 5: Growing Up With A Disability

Level: upper elementary school and up

Time: 45 minutes

Objectives:

- Participants will be able to restate several points that a disabled guest speaker has made.
- Participants will be able to name several new ideas about what life is like when a person has a disability.

Materials:

- "Could You Still" - handout

Personnel: one discussion facilitator, one disabled guest speaker

Preparation:*

Before the session, meet with and provide an orientation for the guest speaker(s). Jointly develop the session with the guests so that the personal sharing is comfortable and the particular talents or interests of each guest are incorporated into the session. As part of the orientation, encourage the guest speakers to think about the following topics that can be included in their presentation:

1. what special interest they have
2. what kind of work they do
3. something positive about their disability
4. how their disabilities have affected their lives
5. mobility techniques they use - including a description of the equipment that's necessary (wheelchairs, walkers, braces, etc.)
6. adaptive equipment they use (adaptive eating equipment, mouthstick, etc.)
7. what was it like growing up?

Activities:

1. Introduce your guest. Ask him or her to speak to the class for about 10 minutes, covering the points discussed in the orientation session. After the guest has spoken, allow the participants to ask questions.

* From the KIDS Project Manual, Berkeley, CA. The Center for Independent Living.

2. Pass out the "Could You Still" handout. Have each student complete one copy. After all have finished, ask the guest speaker to help you discuss the students' reactions to the exercise. Ask individual students to give examples of things they think they couldn't do, and ask them to explain why. Were there any surprises in filling out the form?

could you still???? not bind

if you were (had):

	play ball	kiss a friend	eat ice cream	fly a kite	sing a song	love a pet	watch TV	go on a picnic	dance	love your family	swim	get married	go to a movie	be a parent	play an instrument	dress yourself	live alone	go to a party	have a job
blind																			
deaf																			
physically disabled																			
retarded																			
learning disabled																			
emotionally disabled																			
epileptic																			
diabetic																			
sickle cell																			
ostomate																			
kidney disease																			
cancer																			

y-yes

n- no

68

Module 6 - Labels and Myths

Level: Upper elementary

Time: 45 minutes

Objectives

- Participants will be able to list new and old terms used to describe disabilities.
- Participants will be able to use the appropriate terminology approved by people with disabilities.
- Participants will recognize that people with disabilities are people first, and disabled second.

Personnel: one discussion leader

Materials:

- four 8 x 10" label cards with strings attached
- blackboard
- overhead projector
- biography statements (see the last pages of this module)
- transparency of page 11, The Invisible Battle by Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute (see the References)

Activities:

1. Discussion: "Many labels have a history"

   a. Before the 19th century, anyone who looked or acted different was believed to be possessed by an evil spirit; they were said to be witches or insane.

   b. In the 19th century, Europeans interested in the biological sciences tried to institute a more specialized classification system. An idiot had an I.Q. of 25; an imbecile, an I.Q. of 49; a moron, an I.Q. of 74. Sometimes these classifications served racist or political ends; e.g., Mongolism (see S.J. Gould's essay on "Dr. Down's Syndrome" in The Panda's Thumb).

   c. What other labels have you heard used to describe people who are "different"?

2. Labeling Activity.* State, "the trouble with labels is prejudice. The word prejudice comes from pre-judgment. Labels are summary statements. They carry pre-judgments about people." Ask for four volunteers from the group. Each is given a biography statement to read silently. One at a time, each volunteer stands before the group, wearing a label - i.e., deaf, blind, physically disabled, mentally retarded. While the volunteer is standing, group members call out/free associate the characteristics they associate with that label. Group members must look at the label-wearer while they speak out. The discussion leader should record their pre-judgments on the blackboard or overhead. After all disabilities have been characterized, the volunteers summarize their individual biographies for the group. The discussion leader should ask these volunteers to describe their feelings during the labeling exercise. State, "those labels reflect the fact that doctors and special educators used to specialize in treating organic problems in isolation. The social and economic consequences of organic problems were given little attention."

3. Summary. State, "now, people with disabilities are asking us to change the way we talk about disabilities. The World Health Organization has decided to change its terminology. Instead of focusing on medical problems or historical labels, people around the world are recognizing that people with disabilities are, first of all, people. Therefore, the approved terminology is:

   impairment = any loss or abnormality of physical or psychological structure or function.

   disability = restriction or lack of ability to function because of impairment.

   handicap = restriction or lack of ability to function caused by society's response to disability.

4. View the "David" transparency on page 11 of The Invisible Battle (see p. 56). Cover the right hand paragraph, and ask the students to read the left hand paragraph. Ask the students, "What is David's impairment?" (We can't tell, but apparently his legs are affected.) "What is his disability?" (His walking is restricted -- he uses a wheelchair.) "Is he handicapped?" (Yes -- the attitude of the bar manager and the architectural barriers in the bar handicap him.)

* From the KIDS Project Manual

Follow-up Suggestions:

1. Read a biography of a well-known person with a disability. Tell how he or she is like or unlike prejudgments made about people with his or her disability.

2. Pretend that President Reagan is deciding whether or not to allow children with disabilities to be integrated into public schools. Write him a letter telling him why students with severe disabilities should attend your school. Tell him how it benefits disabled and able-bodied students.

3. Add the new vocabulary words -- impairment, disability and handicap -- to your spelling list. Define each and give examples. E.g.,
   impairment - blurred vision
   disability - inability to read small print
   handicap - denial of a job in spite of qualifications

4. View the film Feeling Free, Feeling Proud. How were the actors in the film (people with developmental disabilities) affected by labeling?

Biography Statements for Labelling Activity

Biography of a Visually Disabled Person

My name is Elise. I can see light and dark, but not much else. I go to Elliot High School with a lot of people who don't have trouble seeing. My best subjects in school are English and Drama. I have two brothers, both younger than I am. I've never seen them, because I was born blind, but I can recognize their voices a mile off. I hope to go to Texas at Christmas to visit my grandmother. That will be my first time on an airplane.

Biography of a Physically Disabled Person

My name is Robert. I go to Roosevelt Middle School. I'm in a fifth grade class with twenty-five other students. I get into trouble with my teacher sometimes for messy work and for talking to my best friend Mark. I was born with Spina Bifida. This means that the bones in my spine haven't closed around my spinal cord. I use a wheelchair to get around in school and in my neighbor- hood. At home I like to build model airplanes. I go to camp in the summer.

Biography of a Deaf Person

My name is April. I go to Susan B. Anthony School where I have a special resource teacher to help me with some of my school work. I wear a hearing aid, but it doesn't help me to hear everything. At home, I like to listen to the stereo through earphones with the volume turned way up. I use American Sign Language with my friends. My mother can't always understand what I say in Sign Language, and so sometimes it's like my friends and I know a secret code.

Biography of a Mentally Retarded Person

My name is Chris. I go to Adams Middle School. My hobbies are swimming and running. I have a sister who is in high school. Sometimes we go to McDonald's together. My best friend is Donna. She sits near me in school. Sometimes we work together in the cafeteria helping to make lunch. My favorite group is Devo.

5. Use the scenes in the Dignity booklet from Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute . Read each of the five "scenes" to your students and have them talk about them, as in Activity 4.

6. INTEGRATION AS MORE THAN PEACEFUL COEXISTENCE: PEER TUTORING AND SPECIAL FRIENDS PROGRAMS

To the REACH Project, successful integration meant that there would be positive, ongoing contact between students with severe disabilities and their nondisabled peers. Contact, as opposed to peaceful coexistence, entailed more intervention, in the form of two programs that enabled us to plan and structure the encounters that disabled and able-bodied students would have with each other. We called this intervention our peer tutoring and special friends programs.

A. Structuring Interactions between Students: Peer Tutoring and Special Friends Programs

"Peer tutoring" and "special friends" programs are two ways of creating positive interactions between students who are new to each other -- in this case, severely disabled and able-bodied students. We modeled these programs on an analogous situation -- that of the "new kid in school". When a new student enters school at midyear, he or she may need help fitting in. The student may not know the folkways of the new school (hanging out in the bathroom is okay, but beware of the janitor), or he or she may be behind the class in some subjects. Often, a regular education teacher will ask an old timer to take a new student in hand and show the newcomer the ropes. If the student needs help in an academic subject, the teacher may appoint a classmate to tutor the newcomer until he or she reaches grade level.

Similarly, at the REACH Project sites, peer tutoring was the term we used to describe the program in which a nondisabled student would visit a severely disabled peer on a regular basis to tutor him or her on a specific task. Peer tutoring often had a curricular focus (e.g., the tutor might concentrate on teaching the tutee to do laundry or recognize coins), and tutors often learned to keep data on their student's progress. Since a peer tutoring program generally requires a greater time investment than a "special friends" program, regular education faculty may find it easier to justify the time students spend in integrated activities if they know that the program does have this tutorial focus.

Special friends also interact with disabled schoolmates on a regularly-scheduled basis, but activities are usually planned for before or after school, at recess or at lunch time. Special friends may tutor their severely disabled peers at times, by showing them how to go through the cafeteria line or perform other practicial tasks, but special friends activities more often focus on leisure-time pursuits. Special friends commit less academic time to their program than peer tutors do: at one of the schools described in the case studies section that follows, for example, special friends volunteered two lunch periods per week.

Both peer tutors and special friends do devote some time to participating in discussion meetings with special education staff. During these meetings, concerns can be discussed and questions can be answered. From experience, we've learned that providing a structure to buttress the peer tutoring and special friends programs is important. Having predetermined activities, adult supervision and a time and place to discuss problems and progress enables students to feel more comfortable in the presence of their severely disabled peers. Without this structure, relationships would be slow to develop or might never happen at all.

B. Structured Interactions As A Way of Creating More Spontaneous Relationships

Some educators have preferred to draw a sharp distinction between the roles of peer tutor and special friend. Peer tutors, by their analysis, are thought to assume a teacher-to-student relationship with their disabled schoolmates -- a relationship that precludes the equal association that characterizes friendship. Special friends, on the other hand, are thought to be playmates and not teachers.

Our observations lead us to disagree with this distinction. We've seen peer tutors who played spontaneously with their severely disabled tutees outside their scheduled classroom times. We've also seen special friends who could switch from "hanging out" to teaching and back to hanging out with no trouble at all. It's our opinion that, in the early stages of a relationship between a severely disabled and a nondisabled student, defining roles and activities aids interaction. But once the students are familiar enough with one another to feel comfortable, their relationship tends to become more spontaneous and it no longer matters whether the structure is called tutoring or friendship. The development of equal status comes about when the students' relationship flows back and forth from teaching to playing.

C. Case Histories of Special Friends and Peer Tutoring Programs

The case histories that follow provide examples of special friends and peer tutoring programs at an elementary and a middle school. In the hope of helping others who want to set up similar structures, we present the "how-to" details of recruiting student volunteers, training and maintaining volunteers and obtaining faculty support for both types of programs.

In setting up programs that structure interactions between disabled and able-bodied students, we've found that flexibility is the key word. Every school site has strengths to contribute to the integration process -- the challenge is to identify the strengths and work around the weak areas.

We'd like to note that setting up a special friends or peer tutoring program takes time, patience, planning, and openness. The integration process isn't easy but the payoff to all concerned makes the effort worthwhile, as we hope the case histories that follow will show.

Case History: School I

School I is a small elementary school located in a middle class neighborhood. It has 245 students, of whom 50% are Chinese, 10% are Caucasion and 10% are Black. Another 30% are Hispanic, Filipino or of Asian origin other than Chinese or Filipino. There are 16 faculty and ancillary staff members, who consitute a cohesive group with several years of experience in working together. They are devoted teachers, who share a traditional approach to education. The three R's are a major emphasis in the school.

From our first encounter with the staff, it was apparent that they were willing to try new ideas but wanted to take a basically conservative approach. The special education teachers at this school had worked at another integrated school in the district and they volunteered to participate in the REACH Program. They were skeptical about integration and reported a number of problems at their former integrated school, including negative staff attitudes, special education staff wishes for separatism, and a lack of inservice training. But they were willing to try a new type of integration program.

The students with severe disabilities at this school could be characterized as functioning at the trainable level. Compared to the rest of the REACH classrooms, these students were at a high level of functioning and extremely social. Their self-help skills were fairly good. The entire population was ambulatory, thereby eliminating any problems or concerns about the school's accessiblilty. There were two classes of students with severe disabilities at this site, including children aged 4.9 to 12 years.

Below, we describe how we went about integrating these children into the life of the school, step by step by step (or more accurately -- problem by problem).

Problem 1: How do you convince a conservative faculty that integration can work

Our approach was to demonstrate success on a small scale, while working toward an end goal of total participation by all faculty.

At the beginning of the school year, REACH provided awareness-level training to the entire student body. The regular and special education teachers were pleased with this presentation; however, it was clear that a single activity of this sort was not enough to start the integration process. Some positive

steps had been made, but they didn't go far enough:

- The students with severe disabilities ate in the lunch room with the able bodied students, but they seldom sat together. A "retard table" was painfully apparent, discouraging spontaneous interactions.

- The severely disabled students went out to recess with the regular education students, but the special education and regular education students seldom -- if ever -- interacted.

- Several of the regular education teachers had invited the special education students into their classes and vice versa but this was infrequent.

It was apparent that the school needed an impetus to change the situation from peaceful co-existence to acceptance and interaction. To provide that impetus, we first had to obtain the support of the two special education teachers. We knew that without their support, integration would never happen. Because of our success with the special fiends programs at other sites, we decided to present them with concept of a special friends program. They were interested in the idea but hesitant and unsure about how to implement it. REACH volunteered to recruit volunteers and conduct the first orientation (training) session, if one or both of the special education teachers would attend the meetings. By getting the special education teachers and staff involved from the start, we hoped that they'd have some investment in maintaining the program and that the program would become part of the school system, not an adjunct to it. The special education teachers agreed to attend the meetings.

Next, the principal was asked if a program of this nature could be implemented in his school. He, too, was hesitant but willing to try. He suggested that we consult the regular education faculty, which we did at a faculty meeting where we discussed how similar programs had worked in other San Francisco schools. We emphasized the ways in which a special friends program could benefit regular education and special education students alike. The faculty was interested but immediately wanted to know:

- Would this program take away from the regular education students' academic time?

We assured the faculty that initially the program would occur just during recess and the lunch hour. If it was successful, it could be expanded into other time slots, but only with faculty input and support.

- Would all the teachers in the school have to participate in this program?

We answered that teacher participation would be voluntary. Forced participation would probably result in disaster and positive public relations were crucial, since we were dealing with a conservative faculty. We took the Pied Piper approach -- if the program was successful, the entire school would want to participate and our experience confirmed this. Initially, only three teachers volunteered to participate but by the end of the year every teacher was involved in some way.

The faculty then wanted to know:

- How much time would the regular education teacher have to spend on this program?

Since the teachers made it very clear that they had little or no time to devote to it, we minimized the time requirements by volunteering to go to the classrooms of the interested, with the special education teachers, and make a presentation on the special friends program and the special education classes at that particular school. Students would volunteer to be special friends and classroom teachers would okay their participation. In this way, the regular education teachers were relieved of having to explain the program to their students.

- How many volunteers should be selected and how often should they participate in the program? Which special education students would participate?

The faculty had conservative views about the number of students and the amount of time the regular education students should commit to the program. They wanted a six-week pilot program during which students would contribute no more than two lunch periods per week. At the end of that time, the students and teacher would decide who should continue in the program. Modifications and revisions would also be made in the program at that point.

As for the special education students' participation, REACH and the special education teachers decided to select students who could eat lunch with minimal supervision. These first students were those with the fewest behavior problems, the greatest number of interpersonal skills, and the most independent eating behavior.

The special education teachers identified six students with these skills. We were thus able to start the program with 12 regular education students, six of whom would eat with their special friends on Mondays and Wednesdays, and the other six, on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Later, as staff and students experienced success, other special education students would be added to the program. REACH had a zero reject goal for the special

friends program (i.e., all the severely disabled students would be included). Our goal was realized, with the exception of two students. (Teachers felt that these children had severe behavior problems -- hitting others, etc. -- and needed to be closely monitored.) By the end of the year, 18 special education students and 36 special friends were participating in the program.

Finally, teachers asked:

- What would be the selection criteria for the regular education students?

We suggested that each classroom teacher set the criteria for his or her own students. One teacher decided to make the selection on the basis of student interest; another used the program as a reward system and another used random selection. Hence we had a diverse assortment of students, ranging from the gifted to the "trouble makers". Interestingly, many of these "trouble makers" turned out to be our best volunteers. The regular education teachers were somewhat puzzled yet pleased by this phenomenon. They thought that the program probably gave these children a sense of responsibility and feeling of importance. Many of the regular education teachers also reported that, as a result of their students' involvement in the special friends program, they'd seen dramatic changes in all the participating childrens' behavior and attitudes both in and out of the classroom.

Having answered the faculty's major questions, the next step was to talk to the regular education students.

Problem 2 - How do you get consistent, reliable, and interested student volunteers?

We decided to have a discussion session with each regular education class, during which we could elicit students' ideas about volunteering and friendship. We'd already laid a foundation for a discussion of this nature by making presentations in all the classrooms at the beginning of the school year. By this time -- three months later -- the regular education and special education students had had a chance to observe each other. Since we knew that the regular education students would have questions, our first goal was to answer those questions and clarify any misconceptions. Some comments made during this first part of the discussion sessions were:

> "They do a lot of things like us -- how come they have to be in their own classroom?" "Ooooh, they have big tongues." "What's wrong with S.? She has six fingers." "Why does T. sometimes scream? She looks so normal."

We were honest and direct in our answers, but very careful to avoid disclosing confidential information. We emphasized the students' strengths rather than their disabilities. Then, after we answered the students' questions, we asked them to identify all the activities they'd seen the special education students participate in that were similar to things they liked to do around school. In response, they listed running, playing on the gym equipment, singing, dancing, eating, etc.

Once we thought the children knew which "normalized" activities the students with severe disabilities could do, we wrote the word VOLUNTEER on the board and asked the group if anyone knew what the word meant. Based on their response, we either defined the word or expanded on the definition they gave. We then asked them to name the characteristics of a good volunteer. Some of the characteristics they noted were:

- be on time
- share
- be nice
- do what you're asked to do.

Next, we wrote the word FRIEND on the board, and asked the students to define the word and generate its characteristics. We felt that if the students generated their own rules and activities, they'd be more likely to follow through once they became volunteers than they would if the rules were adult-generated.

After completing these activities, we talked about the concept of the special friends program, incorporating the students' definitions into our description. We then asked, "who thinks they can follow the rules and be a special friend?" Student response was overwhelmingly enthusiastic -- the majority wanted to volunteer. We said that those not selected this time would have a future opportunity to participate. The teachers then selected the volunteers and instructed them to meet with us the following week for one hour. At that time, contracts were completed (see the sample contract at the end of this chapter), activities were discussed, special friends were selected and specific schedules were developed. The schedule was xeroxed and copies were given to the regular education teachers, the special education teachers and the principal.

Problem 3: How do you limit/prevent the special friends from developing a teacher/student relationship with the special education students?

At their orientation meeting, the special friends expressed fears about how to interact with the students with severe disabilities. They were unsure of what to say or do. We role-played various situations but found that this wasn't enough. Since we knew that the first meeting would set the stage for future interactions, we asked the special friends what they

wanted to do to make their first interactions relaxed and comfortable. When we suggested that the special friends have a party, they thought that was a marvelous idea. Because we wanted to avoid having this activity to adult-centered, we asked the students to plan the party. They ended up having a food committee, entertainment committee, and name tag committee and the party turned out to be the talk of the school. The first few moments were tense, as are the first few moments at any party where people don't know each other; however, the ice was broken when children who'd brought tapes to the party put on the music, and everybody started to dance. The regular education students saw that the students with severe disabilities could respond to the music and everybody relaxed at that point and started to have a good time. It was difficult to tell who was who. By no means did the teacher-student phenomenon occur; they were just friends having a good time. We should note that one of REACH's goals was to create high status for the special friends program, and the party was a definite help. We knew that student interest would have to be the impetus to keep the program going, since the teachers were occupied with other projects. If the students integrated the program into their system, they would, in turn, pressure the teachers to make the program part of the school. This, in fact, eventually happened, as the next few sections show.

Problem 4 - How do you keep the special friends interested and involved once the novelty wears off?

After the party, a special friends bulletin board was developed to give the program more exposure. The pictures, names, and schedules of all the students (regular and special education students alike) were posted in the main office of the school in a highly visible area. The board served two functions: it gave the program more status, and kept the special friends on a specific schedule.

We found that the students needed this information for the first two weeks of the program; after that time period, the information became routine. Having this information in an accessible spot made it easy for the students to be accountable for themselves.

The REACH staff and the special education teachers made themselves available to answer questions as the need arose. We did recess duty, spent time in the cafeteria, and otherwise made ourselves visible so that the children could come up to us whenever they felt like it and casually ask questions like "What do I do with _____ at recess?" or "Can't you make her eat faster?" Whenever we could, we would try to get the students to generate solutions to their problems. This was frequently a successful technique.

One major snag in the program was the lack of age-appropriate equipment that could be used at recess or at other times of the day. This was a problem at all REACH school sites. We ended up purchasing equipment that would be placed in a materials center, and checked out by the special education teacher as needed. We bought equipment only if it was age-apropriate, had appeal to both regular and special education students and could be adapted to partial participation if total participation weren't possible (e.g., toy cars, card games like fish or Uno, frisbees, ring toss, etc.; for lists of equipment, see the Appendix, section D). Once these items were purchased, interest by regular and special education students alike soared. The question of "what do I do with _____ at recess?" was seldom asked again at the schools where the equipment was used appropriately.

The true test of the success, however, was how the students felt about the program. The special education students looked forward to lunch each day. On the days that their peers were absent, they were usually upset and confused. They definitely missed their friends. At the six week review period, the regular education students as well as the special education students reported satisfaction with what they were doing. All but one regular education student wanted to continue in the program.

Problem 5 - How do you expand the program to involve more regular and special education students?

At the end of the six week trial period, faculty and students decided to continue with, and expand the lunchtime program. Two important factors in this decision were 1) the regular education students' enjoyment of the experience, and 2) the efforts made by REACH and special education staff members to keep the faculty well-informed of what was happening in the program.

Expansion progressed naturally after this point. Our role changed from implementation to facilitation. As ideas were suggested by the school staff, we were there to encourage and support but definitely not to do the activity. The major results were:

- The special education teachers recognized the worth of the lunch time program. As we mentioned earlier, by the end of the year, all but two of the students with severe disabilities had special friends. The regular education students came from classes throughout the school -- so that the entire school became involved.

- The special education teachers recruited volunteers for an afternoon leisure time program in their classroom. This involved 18 special education and regular education students.

- The regular education teachers were asking the special education teachers and students to participate in non-academic classroom activities: music, art, physical education.

- The special education students were <u>expected</u> rather than <u>invited</u> to be involved in the school's extracurricular activities.

- One special education student participated in the third grade reading and math program.

- Four special education students became involved in the English as a Second Language (ESL) program with age-appropriate peers. Although this program was overcrowded, the ESL teachers came to feel that it was important to involve the special education students.

- Spontaneous social interactions between regular education and special education students became commonplace on the playground.

- The special education table no longer existed in the lunchroom.

- All the older special education students who were moving to middle school programs in the fall participated in the school graduation ceremony. No distinction was made between regular education and special education students. The pride of the special education parents was overwhelming. For many of these parents, this was the first activity where their children weren't viewed as special but as part of the crowd -- a crowd of capable young people who had a bright future.

Case History: School II

School II is a middle school serving 900 students, aged 12 to 15. The student population is multi-ethnic/multicultural, with a majority of Asian students. REACH had two classrooms at this school site, with approximately 20 students, aged 12 to 18. These students with severe disabilities happened to be lower functioning than the children described in the first case study.

One of the severely disabled students' teachers, K.G., is a very enthusiastic, outgoing individual. From the beginning, she was eager to implement a peer tutor/special friends program. As a result, REACH assisted her in her efforts to get a program going within the first few months of the school year. The sections below describe how the REACH staff and K.G. dealt with some of the major questions and steps in implementing this type of program.

Problem 1: How do you recruit students in a middle school?

Middle schools are big -- often serving four times as many students as elementary schools. The number of faculty is also large, and faculty meetings resemble the United Nations General Assembly in length and complexity. As a result, different techniques must be used to recruit volunteer students than those that work for elementary schools.

Since personal contact with all faculty and students was impossible at School 2, we used other channels of communication. Interested students were notified of K.G.'s need for special friends and peer tutors through the daily bulletin, the school newspaper and through notices posted in the guidance office. Announcements were also made at P.T.A. and faculty meetings. Volunteers were also asked to contact guidance counselors, who would then assign them to K.G.'s class.

Additional volunteers were attracted by this teacher's open door policy. Students passing by often stopped to watch what was going on in the class for students with severe disabilities; K.G.'s welcoming attitude often resulted in students' signing up to become peer tutors or special friends.

Problem 2: How do you set up programs in a middle school?

Structures that support extracurricular programs already existed in School 2, and K.G. wisely made use of the subject elective structure, which sets aside one school period a day for each student to learn an elective subject such as sewing, cooking or woodshop. Students can also participate in work-study

experiences at this time, such as being a school clerk, an aide in the library or an assistant in the cafeteria. Students are graded and receive academic credit for these electives. For many, tutoring schoolmates with severe disabilities represented a welcome alternative to the other electives.

Those who elected the peer tutoring/special friends program were assigned to K.G.'s classroom for a report card period of nine weeks. They were required to spend 55 or 70 minutes a day in the class, and were to be graded not only on attendance, but also on ability to implement curricula and carry out assignments. Tutors were responsible for a variety of one-to-one instructional tasks. This system of accountability/responsibility assured K.G. that she would have consistent volunteers. Building in grades and citizenship marks would be an added inducement to convince students to meet their commitments, although it rarely turned out to be necessary to fall back on these contingencies. K.G. reported that once the students started in the program, they got hooked on being in the program. Many of the peers even volunteered extra time before and after school to help the students with severe disabilities on and off the schoolbus.

For the special friends club, K.G. used another existing program to ensure that students would take their commitments seriously. Special friends were primarily responsible for eating lunch with the students with disabilities and K.G. made use of a program called the Service Program to make sure that they did. The Service Program, run by a school counselor, awarded points to students who volunteered for school service jobs (cafeteria worker, gym worker) or for sports. K.G. arranged that students who volunteered their lunch period twice a week for one semester would receive 30 points (a total comparable to those received for the other jobs). One hundred and fifty points were needed to earn a school letter.

Problem 3: How do you manage student volunteers?

Planning is necessary if student volunteers are to be used effectively. K.G. used formal and informal training, a bulletin board system, and some special classroom management techniques in her efforts to make her volunteer program a successful one.

The special friends/peer tutors joined the program a few at a time, allowing time for informal training. Volunteers were asked to observe for one or two days in the classroom or cafeteria, and at the end of each observation period they were encouraged to ask questions or discuss concerns. REACH also conducted awareness level training for the volunteers, and, later in the year, presented disability simulation sessions (see the Inservice Lesson Plans in Chapter 5 for the content of these

presentations). K.G. initially presented a series of brief lectures on data collection and other issues to the peer tutors, but discovered that the volunteers needed hands-on experience first, before they could appreciate the content of the lectures.

Besides needing to convey practical information to her volunteers, K.G. wanted to provide a forum for discussions of classroom issues and of the volunteers' feelings about what they were doing. She therefore set up monthly meetings, but rapidly found that junior high students have difficulty discussing emotions in a large-group situation. She had greater success talking to them on an informal, one-to-one basis as the need arose. But with the help of a stimulus such as a film or a disabled guest speaker, K.G. found that the students would open up and voice their concerns. These meetings were also useful for conveying factual information about disabilities. Students often asked "What is Down's syndrome?" or "What does C.P. mean?", and K.G. could quickly give them the facts.

Another program management device entailed the use of a special bulletin board to keep peer tutors aware of the program in general, the schedule, and student assignments. The tutors were instructed to check the board on a daily basis. If there were changes in their special education students' programs or schedules, this information would be posted. This eliminated the need for K.G. to individually communicate these details to each student -- a time-consuming process.

The board was also used for informational purposes: current articles on disabled individuals were posted, and current events related to the classroom and community were outlined. K.G. encouraged the volunteers to contribute to the bulletin board by sharing items and topics that were of specific interest to the peer tutors/special friends.

Still another management mechanism was to suggest that specific activities be carried out but let the peer tutors and special friends select the students with whom they wanted to work. (In some cases, two nondisabled students would work with one severely disabled student.) After students made this choice, K.G. designed specific activities and programs for each of the peer tutor and special friends to follow, and assigned her aides to be responsible for a portion of the peer training. The aides demonstrated how to run programs, then had the peers imitate what they saw. A lot of emphasis was put on the need for consistency in carrying out programs, and on the importance of data collection. To ensure program reliability, K.G. would observe the various peer tutors and monitor their ability to implement programs. At that time, she could give feedback to the tutors, or modify student programs.

Classroom management is problematic when a number of volunteers join an already busy classroom and K.G. has made us aware of the complexity of managing peer tutoring and special friends programs while simultaneously trying to provide quality academic services. On the negative side, such programs are time-consuming and fatiguing for the teacher who must assume a managerial role as a constant stream of volunteers move through the classroom. Some programs -- difficult instructional procedures, aversive or complex tasks -- should not be run by tutors. Self-care programs, for example, may threaten the dignity and privacy of students with severe disabilities if taught by peers.

On the positive side, however, the peer tutoring program allowed K.G. the opportunity for one-to-one instruction. She notes that she's able to develop an age-appropriate social interaction curriculum for her students because she has nondisabled models in the classroom to observe. She also reports that she developed a special relationship with the peer tutors/special friends, which she hadn't expected, and which gives her a lot of pleasure. She says that the extra work is more than worth it.

Managing the special friends training program was somewhat less complex than overseeing the peer tutoring program. K.G.'s lunchtime goals for each student with severe disabilities determined how each pair of special friends would interact. The goals also determined the degree of training the nondisabled student would need to carry out the program. The interactions that were designed to meet the goals ranged from teaching specific skills (e.g., using utensils or going through the lunch line) to just being with the severely disabled students, and talking to them. Each special friend would be in charge of a student for the entire lunch hour. Their responsibilities included finding the severely disabled student in the cafeteria, going through the lunch line, sitting by the student at lunch, and taking the student out in the yard at noon break.

The majority of these students were distributed throughout the cafeteria in order to prevent the phenomenon of the "retarded table". This presented some administrative problems. In the beginning, the special friends needed guidance and direction. Since the aides were already in the cafeteria, K.G. assigned them to monitor a certain number of nondisabled and severely disabled students. They were in charge of training the students and answering any questions the special friends might have. K.G. moved around the cafeteria monitoring students and their progress.

A few of the students with severe disabilities ate at a common table. These students were individuals with limited self-help ability and communication skills. These students had specific programs to work on, e.g., picking up a spoon. The nondisabled students working with these students were more like

the peer tutors in that they had specific programs to teach. K.G. reports that structuring the interaction greatly enhanced the nondisabled students' ability to relate to these students with severe disabilities. In the beginning, the nondisabled students felt awkward but since they could rely on a particular structure, they were eventually able to move on to more spontaneous interactions.

Problem 3: How can volunteers be rewarded for their participation in the program?

Reinforcement for volunteers can be extrinsic or intrinsic. Besides using service points and grades, K.G. developed other ways to let her volunteers know that their presence was appreciated. She consistently gave oral and written feedback. She left personal notes on programs the peers were implementing. At Christmas, the students with severe disabilities made the nondisabled students gifts. There were various parties throughout the year that allowed the students to relate purely on a social level. At the end of the school year, there was an awards banquet, at which all students -- with and without disabilities -- were recognized.

Once the able-bodied students got to know the students with severe disabilities, reinforcement became intrinsic in nature. The non-disabled students saw great gains in the disabled students' social and cognitive development as a result of their interactions. K. reports that this was the major reinforcer for the able bodied students, and the main reason they gave for wanting to continue working in the program.

While K.G. was initially concerned that the volunteers might get bored working on a single program for an extended period of time, she soon discovered the reverse to be the case. They liked the predictability of being able to work with a severely disabled student based on the previous day's progress. Volunteers also liked keeping data and charting it at the end of class. They enjoyed seeing graphic evidence of student progress. We think that the volunteers were also rewarded by the chance to form close personal relationships with K.G. and her staff. These middle school students often shared their day-to-day problems with these sympathetic and caring adults.

Benefit for students with severe disabilities

K.G. reports three ways in which her students gained from their exposure to peer tutors and special friends: 1) All students with severe disabilities formed personal relationships with their nondisabled peers. They would laugh or vocalize appropriately when they saw their special friends. They'd watch the door when it was time for their tutors to arrive, or they'd move toward their able-bodied schoolmates when they saw them in the cafeteria or on the playground. 2) Several students with

severe disabilities learned age-appropriate behaviors from their peer tutors/special friends. Nonverbal joking, peer group greetings and skills such as lining up or obtaining food in the cafeteria were seen in students with severe disabilities. 3) All students benefited from being exposed to a variety of new people, but one multidisabled blind girl made special gains. In her previous segregated school she'd been unable to deal with changes in personnel or routine; in School 2 she came to actually enjoy the exposure to changing groups of peer tutors and special friends.

Benefits for the nondisabled students

The nondisabled students derived an equal number of benefits. One of the marked changes K.G. noted was their heightened awareness of justice versus injustice when dealing with a minority group. An example of this was the anger felt by the volunteers when they discovered that the severely disabled classes had been excluded from the school yearbook. This was an oversight on the part of the administration but because of the regular education students' complaints, it will probably never happen again.

Another change occurred in students labeled "trouble makers" by the administration. The structure of the peer tutoring/special friends program and the responsibility inherent in the volunteer role seemed to be responsible for changes in the behavior of these "tough kids". Besides relating well to their severely disabled peers, publicity given to their efforts helped change their reputations with the administration.

The nondisabled students also gained a more accurate view of the abilities of people with severe disabilities. They found that, with appropriate educational programming, students with severe disabilities can learn. K.G. felt that many volunteers had a difficult time relating to the students who "acted out". Over the course of the year, the nondisabled students observed dramatic changes in these students. These observations illustrated the lesson that special education can and does help students. K. felt that as future adults in our society, these able-bodied students will probably be advocates of human service programs because they've seen positive growth and development in all their disabled peers.

The following page presents a copy of the peer tutor contract that Project REACH utilized.

Peer Tutor Contract

Teacher _____ Date _____

Grade _____ Room _____

Name of Regular Education Student: _____

Name of Special Education Student: _____

Special Friend [ ]

Peer Tutor [ ]

Wheel chair training completed: No [ ] Yes [ ] Not applicable [ ] Date _____

Description of activity as Special Friend:

Description of activity as Peer Tutor:

Schedule for Special Friend/Peer Tutor

Contract review date:

Teachers' signatures _____

Parent/s' signatures _____

Student's signature _____

_____

Project REACH, 1981

7. DEVELOPING YOUR OWN AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS AS AN AID TO INTEGRATION

Although we certainly appreciate the professional gloss of commercially-produced media, the videotapes and photographic slides we took ourselves played a major role in our inservice activities. We strongly suggest that anyone embarking on an integration plan develop their own inservice media.

An effective color videotape can be made, using borrowed equipment, for $15 to $25 -- the cost of the tape. A slide show, with accompanying tape-recording, can be put together for a similar cost. As we'll show, such personalized media have several important functions, and are worth your time and expense.

Self-produced media are highly useful for three purposes: informational inservice presentations, documentations and training.

A. Informational Inservice Presentations.

One problem with most available media is that they deal with single disabilities. If you show a film about an intellectually-intact blind child to a regular education audience with the expectation of preparing them to interact with a severely disabled child, you're likely to be disappointed. And so are the members of your target audience, when they approach a visually-disabled, physically-disabled, mentally-retarded child and expect him or her to read braille and talk with them about his or her seeing eye dog. A major advantage, therefore, of self-produced media is that they can present an accurate picture of the specific children being integrated.

We've noted elsewhere that inservice presentations are most effective when they're personalized, that is, when they match the characteristics of individual sites and students. This is because such presentations are believable. We encounter a lot of "yes, but. . ."'s as we work to integrate students with severe disabilities in regular schools. Parents, administrators, and teachers tend to dismiss our claims about the benefits of integration as the fantasies of ivory-tower academics. We can support such claims by presenting visual documents of severely disabled and nondisabled children interacting at a school where our program has been in operation. A videotape of this sort can penetrate the defenses of a skeptical audience when nothing else will.

It's important that presentation content be believable, but it's equally necessary that the presenters be credible. K.G., who teaches a severely disabled class at REACH's middle school site, has developed a media presentation that is especially high in presenter credibility. She, and the eighth grade students who work as peer tutors in her room, have created a slide show about their tutoring and special friends programs. Photographs taken on site are accompanied by a tape recorded soundtrack, narrated by the eighth graders themselves. This slide show is incorporated into a social studies unit on disability awareness, and is scheduled for viewing by all new sixth grade students at the middle school.

B. Self-produced Media As Documentation

Research studies of socio-emotional development in severely disabled people are scarce. Historically, our field has been more concerned with self-help, language, and mobility than with the personalities of the students we serve. Methods for studying social behaviors are in their infancy. Developmental scales, such as the Callier-Azusa, or the TARC, are not fine-tuned enough to measure the kinds of changes we see in severely disabled children when they first attend integrated schools. Pencil and paper observational scales are valuable but insufficient. They record slices of behavior in terms of frequency or duration -- how many times a child smiled or how long the smile lasted. But social interaction is too complex to be reduced to countable units. Videotape, on the other hand, can record not only that child's smile, but also the context within which the smile occurred -- the incidents that precede and follow the social response. We recommend that inservice providers assist teachers in documenting on videotape their students' social-emotional development.

Furthermore, with videotape documentation, data are preserved in their original form. Unlike pencil and paper measures that record behaviors by changing them into numbers, videotape preserves social interaction in a more natural state. Since we know so little about social and affective development in severely disabled people, it is necessary to supplement quantitative measures (formal scales and observational systems) with a form of data collection that yields qualitative information. Videotapes can also be shared. For example, participants at a meeting where a child's Individual Education Program is being developed may be better able to evaluate a child's progress toward a social interaction goal if the quantified greeting-responses shown on a graph are supplemented by a videotape documenting the quality of those greeting interactions.

C. Self-Produced Media as Training and Reinforcement Tools for Peer Interaction Programs

Photographic slides or classroom videotapes have been used successfully to recruit peer tutors and special friends. These media can also act as effective training aids. Videotapes or slides can illustrate examples of "good ways to act with severely disabled students", or "problems and how to handle them". Video is especially reinforcing to students: special friends and peer tutors enjoy seeing themselves on TV. It is important to share video or slides with the students who appear in them, both for reinforcement and for self-evaluation. Teachers also benefit from a chance to see themselves. Self-produced visual media are a valuable training aid for preservice and inservice staff, as well as for students.

D. What to Record

We suggest the following:

- Interviews with peer tutors and special friends. Students can be asked about their feelings before and after entering the program, or about their activities with their severely disabled schoolmates.
- Informal interactions. Playground, lunch time activities (or nonactivities) and listening to music with a special friend can be documented.
- Structured interactions. Peer tutoring, teacher-structured games with special friends, classroom instruction.
- Special occasions. School assemblies in which students with severe disabilities participate, graduation ceremonies, classroom parties, etc.

E. How to Record: Preparation and Techniques

- Locate available equipment. Can photo or video equipment be borrowed from a Media Resource Center or university? Does a staff member own a home videotape deck and camera?
- Identify staff people who enjoy using the available equipment. If none are available, see whether high school journalism students or university media students can be persuaded to assist you.

- Use color slides or color videotape. Color is a more engaging stimulus than black and white, and allows detail to be more easily discriminated.

- Keep it simple. For example, choose a single severely disabled child to follow on the playground. Frame him or her so that his whole body is within the frame. With videotape, use a minimum of zoom.

- If using videotape, start shooting before an event is to begin and let the tape run continuously until after the event is over. Often we learn more from the initiations and terminations than we do from the event itself.

- Don't click the video camera on and off, interrupting the natural flow of events. Recording for documentation or information doesn't require flashy commercial television techniques.

- Don't pan or move the video camera too often. The cliche holds true here: when in doubt, leave it out.

- Choose a situation in which interactions frequently happen between severely disabled and able-bodied students and film or photograph that situation at intervals throughout the year.

F. Suggestions about Video Equipment

There are two competing color video formats on the market: 1/2 inch and 3/4 inch. The 1/2 inch (also called VHS or Beta) is marketed commercially to home users -- 3/4 inch is professional quality. Equipment is better-made in the 3/4 inch format (more metal = more durability), but initial purchase price is appreciably higher than 1/2 inch.

Less durability in the 1/2 inch format means that models change rapidly, and repair service is a problem. Changed models require different replacement parts, and few service centers can afford to maintain comprehensive parts inventories.

Three-quarter inch is the standard format for dissemination, rental, and professional broadcast. If you make 1/2 inch tapes at your site, you can still copy them onto 3/4 inch tape for later distribution.

Equipment for editing 3/4 inch video is widely available, both in university audio-visual departments and in the commercial service market. You can edit 1/2 inch tapes by copying them onto 3/4 inch tapes, then editing. But some image-quality is lost every time a "second generation" tape is made, so this process is less than ideal for generating good-quality edited tapes.

For producing researchable data, we strongly recommend using two cameras simultaneously, one on the wide picture, one on closeups. Later, 3/4 inch tapes can be run through a device called a time-generator, and window-dubbing can be added, showing elapsed time and synchronization between the two tapes.

8. BIBLIOGRAPHY OF INSERVICE MATERIALS

Nothing in this world is perfect! After three years of surveying available resources, we have yet to find a film or book that exactly suits our needs. We have four major criteria for the materials that we use:

- they promote social integration
- they feature people who are representative of the population of severely disabled students we serve
- they are free of stereotypes
- they are well written and/or well made.

Few of the print and nonprint materials we have reviewed satisfy all of the above criteria. For example, if they promote social integration, they may not feature the population we are trying to integrate. So, we have learned to adapt and edit; we advise you to do the same if you employ materials selected from the bibliography that follows.

A. Nonprint Media and Media Preparation for Inservice

CEC/ERIC. Awareness/acceptance films, filmstrips, and videotapes on the handicapped: Computer search reprint #513. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1982.

An annotated bibliography listing 35 audiovisual titles and media distributors.

Area Developmental Disabilities Board V. Film Catalog. 436 - 14th Street, Suite 1216, Oakland, CA 94612, 1981.

An annotated list of 32 well-chosen films available for loan to residents of Alameda, Contra Costa, Marin, San Francisco, and San Mateo Counties.

Erickson, F. and Wilson, J. Sights and sounds of life in schools: A resource guide to film and videotape for research and education. East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research on Teaching of the College of Education at Michigan State University, 1982.

Advice on making and showing materials for inservice, as well as an excellent (and unusual) annotated bibliography of ethnographic films.

B. Annotated Bibliographies of Print and Nonprint Materials for Young People

Baskin, B.H. and Harris, K.H. Notes from a different drummer: A guide to juvenile fiction portraying the handicapped. New York: R.R. Bowker Co., 1977.

Bisshopp, P. Books about handicaps for children and young adults: The meeting street school annotated bibliography. East Providence, RI: Rhode Island Easter Seal Society, 1978.

Greenbaum, J., Varas, M. and Markel, G. Using books about handicapped children. Childhood Education, March/April 1981, 205-208.

Hopkins, C.J. Developing positive attitudes toward the handicapped through children's books. The Elementary School Journal, 1980, 81(1), 34-39.

Litton, F.W., Banbury, M.M. and Harris, K. Materials for educating nonhandicapped students about their handicapped peers. Teaching Exceptional Children, Fall 1980, 39-43.

Putnam, R.W. Books can introduce your class to the mainstreamed child: A resource list to help all students break down the stereotypes that surround handicapped children. Learning, October 1978.

C. Abstracts of Literature on Disabilities for Young People

Anders, Rebecca. A LOOK AT MENTAL RETARDATION (1976). Minneapolis: Learner Publications Co. Elementary

Describes children with developmental disabilities primarily as "subnormal." The first two photographs are of regular children, and mention of people with mental retardation comes on the third page in comparison to the "gifted" or "unusually intelligent." A number of photographs of retarded children are degrading. Emphasis is on differences. There are no photographs that present examples of integration. At the end, the text does suggest "friendship and encouragement of the developmentally disabled," but does so in the context of being charitable towards mentally retarded classmates, with no mention of what rewards this might have for nondisabled children.

Baldwin, Anne Norris. A LITTLE TIME (1978). NY: The Viking Press. Elementary/Middle School

Short novel about a child with Down's Syndrome who attends a special school. Does show the child in the context of a family with four nondisabled siblings. Emphasizes realities of growing up and living with a developmentally disabled sibling without over-emphasizing the differences or negative aspects. The child is sent away to a foster home at one point in the story because of mother's illness, but in the end the child is brought back home.

Belcher, J.A. SIGN LANGUAGE DOT TO DOT (1979). Northridge, CA: Joyce Media Inc. Elementary

Simple, step-by-step numbered dot-to-dot patterns accompanied by single word identification of the pattern and its sign.

Biklen, Douglas & Sokoloff, Michele. WHAT DO YOU DO WHEN YOUR WHEELCHAIR GETS A FLAT TIRE? (1978) Syracuse, NY: Human Policy Press. Elementary/Middle School

Open, direct questions about having disabilities are answered clearly and honestly by disabled children. Focuses on children with single disabilities. Discusses many facets of disabled children's lives, including differences, similarities, problems, hobbies, school, and interactions and friendships with able-bodied children and other children with disabilities.

Bourke, Linda. HANDMADE ABC. (1981) Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc. Elementary

Well-crafted, illustrated presentation of the signed alphabet.

Brightman, Alan. LIKE ME. (1976) Boston: Little, Brown & Co. Elementary

Emphasizes similarities without covering up contradictions or confusion. Is simple and direct without being condescending. Good for introducing young, nondisabled children to children with developmental disabilities.

Brightman, Alan J. & Storey, Kim. GINNY. (1978) Elementary

Centers on a single disability--dwarfism. Simple, direct account; useful in understanding similarities among people, things we all have in common. Includes positive images showing Ginny with nondisabled people as well as with others who share her disability.

Brightman, Alan J. & Storey, Kim. HOLLIS. (1978) NY: Scholastic Book Services. Elementary

Centers on a single disability--cerebral palsy. Emphasizes that being disabled means there are some things you do more slowly, or that you can't do, and other things you can do. Presents many positive images of Hollis alone as well as with his friends.

Byars, Betsy. THE SUMMER OF THE SWANS. (1981) NY: Penguin Books. Middle School

Depicts the experiences of the fourteen-year-old sister of a young retarded boy. Becomes an adventure story when the brother is lost in the woods. Emphasizes the many levels of similarity and connection the girl recognizes she has with her brother in the context of the confusions and pains of being fourteen.

Clifton, Lucille. MY FRIEND JACOB. (1980) NY: E. P. Dutton Co. Elementary

Straightforward story about the friendship between a young nondisabled boy and an older mentally retarded young man. The relationship portrayed is full of warmth and understanding. The exaggerated focus on being "best friends" detracts from the

reality of the friendship. The dimensions of the friendship achieve a further depth because the friendship also crosses racial barriers.

Cunningham, Julia. BURNISH ME BRIGHT. (1970) NY: Dell Publishing Co., Inc. Elementary/Middle School

Enchanting fairy-tale type story of a mute boy who is mercilessly persecuted for his difference. The story is effective in portraying the oppressive and brutal treatment of anyone with an obvious disability. However, the overall effect of the story is excessively negative and hopeless because of the emphasis placed on the violent reactions of the townspeople toward this boy and those with whom he is able to ally himself.

Dunbar, Robert E. MENTAL RETARDATION. (1978) NY: Franklin Watts. Middle School

Presents a description of what mental retardation is, how retarded people have been dealt with in the past, and some of the options mildly retarded people have in choosing what to do with their lives. Talks about mainstreaming, but doesn't mention integration. Refers to severely retarded people as incapable of independent living, totally dependent, and in need of institutionalized care.

Fassler, Joan. HOWIE HELPS HIMSELF (1982). Chicago: Albert Whitman & Co. Elementary

Portrays a child with multiple disabilities in a simple story form. Describes how in relation to family and friends without directly labeling his disability; it is named by naming what Howie cannot do. Howie is in a special class. It is unclear if he attends a special school. Shows no interactions with nondisabled children at school. Shows Howie interacting with his older sister, his parents, and his grandmother.

Fireside, Bryna J. A CROW FOR COURAGE. (1979) Syracuse, NY: Human Policy Press. Elementary

A fairy tale about a little boy whose legs are impaired by an accident in infancy. The little boy is courageous and is struggling to be more independent. The realities of being unable to use his legs are camouflaged, however; often the boy's character is hard to distinguish from the symbolism that exaggerates his heroism, or seems to suggest the mistaken assumption of inherent goodness because of his disability. Text accompanied by appealing black and white paintings that are not clearly defined.

Glazzard, Margaret H. MEET CAMILLE AND DANILLE. (1978) Lawrence, KS: H & H Enterprises, Inc. Elementary

One of a series that presents children with different disabilities to nondisabled children. Presents similarities and differences between a pair of twin sisters with hearing impairments and their hearing peers in a preschool. Emphasis is on what the two girls must do in order to get along in a hearing environment, as well as what hearing children can do in order to communicate with and be friends with hearing-impaired children. (The series includes 33-1/3 rpm disc records in the back of each book, and a list of vocabulary words.)

Glazzard, Margaret H. MEET DANNY. Elementary

Danny has multiple disabilities. He is presented in a positive light and his disabilities are explained in simple, appropriate language. In the beginning of the book, "multiply handicapped" is said to mean that "Danny has many problems," a definition that seems to detract from the remainder of the text's clarity. Danny is in a special class, but it isn't clear if it is in a special school. No interaction with nondisabled children is shown.

Glazzard, Margaret H. MEET SCOT. Elementary

Simple, direct depiction of a first grader with learning disabilities. Focuses on his relationships to his peers. Clarifies the different ways in which people learn.

Goodsell, Jane. KATIE'S MAGIC GLASSES. (1965) Boston: Houghton Miflin Co. Elementary

Engaging story that alternates between prose and verse with illustrations sharply demonstrating the difference between what a visually impaired child sees and what others see. Katie is presented as an ordinary little girl. The problems she has because of her visual impairment are pointed out specifically, as are her options in improving her situation.

Grealish, Charles & Mary Jane. HACKETT McGEE. (1978) NY: Scholastic Book Services. Middle School

Tells the story of an eighth grade boy who suffered an injury to his spinal cord at a young age and, as a result, is in a wheelchair. The story follows him as he begins attending a regular public school after having attended a special school for a number of years. Presents some of what are common difficulties of physically disabled children in regular schools, pointing out

the attitudes of able bodied people toward people with disabilities that particularly disturb and confuse disabled children. Shows ways in which friendship can happen and divisions which can be overcome. All this is presented in a somewhat isolated setting, however, as Hackett appears to be the only student with any sort of obvious disability attending the school.

Grealish, Mary Jane & Charles. AMY MAURA. (1975) Syracuse, NY: Human Policy Press. Elementary

Concentrates on the difficulties and complaints of a nine-and-a-half year old girl in a wheelchair who has cerebral palsy. The story line is farfetched, and only in a roundabout way do we eventually learn of her disability.

Grealish, Charles & Mary Jane. THE SNEELY-MOUTHED SNERDS AND THE WONDEROCTOPUS. (1975) Syracuse, NY: Human Policy Press. Elementary

Imaginative tale which confronts differences and how they assume inappropriate importance. Illustrations are devoid of color, and the typographical format is difficult to follow.

Greenfield, Eloise & Revis, Alesia. ALESIA. (1981) NY: Putnam Publishing Group. Middle School

The narrative takes the form of dated journal entries by a young black woman who, after being seriously injured at age nine, is making attempts to learn to walk again at age seventeen. The text is accompanied by illustrations and photographs. Allows us a close-up of some of the difficulties Alesia encounters in her day-to-day life, and of her feelings and observations of the ways she is treated by people who respond in oppressive ways to her disability. We also get a very real sense of the joys and pleasures she encounters in pushing herself to become more independent. She attends a regular public school. The photographs show, and she talks about, her interactions with friends and peers who are both disabled and able bodied.

Grieg, Diane & Brightman, Alan J. (Eds.) LAURIE. (1978) NY: Scholastic Book Services. Elementary/Middle School

Centers on a single disability--blindness. Makes clear distinctions in Laure's personal narrative about differences that exist among all of us, and how these differences are not necessarily bad or the cause of antagonism.

Hanlon, Emily. IT'S TOO LATE FOR SORRY. (1978) NY: Dell Publishing Co. High School

Depicts a regular high school-age boy's relationship to a mentally retarded boy close to his age. The retarded boy has spent most of his early years in an institution, but now lives at home and attends a segregated school. The book confronts some of the most common fears of nondisabled young adults toward developmentally disabled people, and the ways those fears are manifested. Although the main character goes through guilt-ridden self-examination about his inappropriate behavior towards his retarded peer, he never makes an actual attempt to identify with or understand him, either as a human being or as an equal. His brutal and oppressive ideas and behaviors toward the retarded young man are never transformed into any kind of true understanding. His misconceptions and fears are, again and again, only temporarily suppressed. The book seems to support the negative attitudes it illustrates because of the lack of any consistent, critical perspective.

Harries, Joan. THEY TRIUMPHED OVER THEIR HANDICAPS. (1981) NY: Franklin Watts. Elementary/Middle School

Focuses on physical disabilities. Presents individuals who share a competetive, driven quality. Demonstrates their relationships to their individual disabilities as competetive, something to be defeated--"triumphed" over. Tends to gloss over harsh realities of coping with any physical disability in this society.

Haskins, James (with Jim Stifle). THE QUIET REVOLTUION; THE STRUGGLE FOR THE RIGHTS OF DISABLED AMERICANS. (1979) NY: Harper & Row. Middle/High School

Presents a consistent position that the needs and rights of people with disabilities have been and continue to be violently and inexcusably denied, and demands that these needs be met. Uses a clear, direct manner in stating and outlining complex issues. Includes explanations of specialized language used to discuss the various aspects of disabled peoples' lives in this society. Depicts the struggle for the most basic of human rights that people with disabilities have been waging in this country from the perspective of disabled people -- those most concerned with and aware of the issues involved.

Jaffe, Jennifer. MY SPECIAL FATHER AND ME. (1981) Berkeley, CA: Shameless Hussy Press. Elementary

Vividly portrays the relationship between a little girl and her blind father. The book is written by the daughter, and is based very much in her world and the sense she makes of her father's disability, other people's responses to it, and her own relationship to it.

Jensen, Virginia Allen & Edman, Polly. RED THREAD RIDDLES. (1979) Paris: UNESCO. Elementary

This book of riddles is written out in English and in Braille, and is accompanied by color and raised-pattern illustrations.

Jones, Ron. THE ACORN PEOPLE. (1981) NY: Bantam Books. Middle School/High School

Tells the true story of a summer camp for children with disabilities. The courage and abilities of children with various disabilities are accentuated and form the center of the narrative's action. The author is an able bodied camp counselor having no experience with disabled children. His awareness is deepened quickly about the realities of these children's lives, and he is able to develop strong bonds with them in a short time. It is unfortunate that the children as a group are presented as dying people. This is suggested at the beginning of the story and is repeated at the end of the book, after the deaths of all the principal children are reported. The emphasis placed on the likelihood of these children's supposed, inevitable early deaths fosters the mistaken fear that any disability is fatal.

Joyce, G. & Gallimore, L. THE VISUAL LANGUAGE COOKBOOK. (1979) Northridge, CA: Joyce Media, Inc. Elementary/Middle School/ High School

Step-by-step instructions for all sorts of recipes. Each written step is accompanied by an illustration of its sign.

Kamien, Janet. WHAT IF YOU COULDN'T/ A BOOK ABOUT SPECIAL NEEDS. (1979) NY: Charles Scribner's Sons. Middle School

Presents descriptions and explanations of various disabilities. Suggests that severely retarded people need to be institutionalized "so they can be safe and cared for twenty-four hours a day." When explaining possible causes of mental retardation and physical disabilities, the term "genetic mistake" is used without an explanation. There are a few specific personal references to real people with real disabilities, but other than these, the author mainly asks the young reader to imagine how it would be to be disabled. This reliance on imagination and the vagueness of some of the explanations create more confusion than clarity about the actualities of having a disability.

Kingman, Lee. HEAD OVER WHEELS. (1978) NY: Dell Publishing Co. High School

Novel about the experience of a young, athletic young man who is paralyzed in a car accident. The narrative focuses on

his identical twin brother's perceptions, and the changes provoked by the accident in both their and their family's lives. A strong attempt to portray the way in which an impairment affects both the disabled individual and those around him.

Mathis, Sharon Bell. LISTEN FOR THE FIG TREE. (1975) NY: Avon Books. Middle School/High School

Novel which deals with the struggles and joys of a young black woman who is blind. The narrative is centered on Marvina's perceptions--how she feels, thinks, hears. The issue of her blindness is not the center of the story. Yet, because Marvina herself as a whole person is the story's focus, the book extensively explores her blindness as well as how she and those close to her relate to it. Marvina's sense of self, her strength, her independence--as well as her anger and her frustration--present a positive image of a blind person in a realistic context of the lives and relationships within a black community.

Ominsky, Elaine. JON O. (1977) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc. Elementary

Positive portrayal of eight-year-old boy with Down syndrome. Shows him in active relationships with his family, friends, and peers. He is mainstreamed in a regular classroom. This is a simple presentation of mental retardation and its effects on a child's life and the lives of those around him. There is an unfortunate insistence upon his "difference," however, assuming that, unlike other people, Jon O. "never forgets he is different.."

Pursell, Margaret S. A LOOK AT PHYSICAL HANDICAPS. (1976) Minneapolis: Lerner Publications Co. Elementary

Consistently uses passive verbs when speaking about disabled people's options. It says that BEFORE they can pursue any goals, "they must learn to live with their special problems." Talks about "handicapped people's problems" without being clear about why it is so difficult to cope with being disabled. Discusses only the idea of disabled people "overcoming their handicaps," and not the changes that need to happen in the society so that disabled people can live their lives without being blamed and victimized for their disabilities.

Rabe, Bernice. THE BALANCING GIRL. (1981) NY: Elsevier-Dutton Publishing Co. Elementary

Story focuses on Margaret, a little girl who balances things. She wears braces and uses a wheelchair, and sometimes

has crutches. The story concentrates on her relationships to her able bodied peers in her first-grade class and her special abilities within this context.

Rodowsky, Colby F. WHAT ABOUT ME/ (1976) NY: Dell Publishing Co., Inc. Middle School/High School

A seemingly adult tone is used by the narrator of the story, who is of high-school age, which seriously diminishes her credibility. The focus is on the feelings of the girl toward her retarded younger brother, who lives with her and their parents in a New York City apartment and attends a special school. It clearly relates the girl's anger and frustration at the limitations imposed on a teenager by a sibling with disabilities. Her hostile attitude toward her brother is difficult to accept because of its consistent virulence. She works for a short time at her brother's school, but even this experience doesn't seem to have much of an effect on her lack of understanding. Although she does gain understanding in the end, this comes to her only because of her brother's death.

Silverstein, Dr. Alvin & Virginia B. RUNAWAY SUGAR. (198) NY: J. B. Lippincott. Elementary

Clear, simple, direct description of diabetes in its various forms.

Smith, Lucia B. A SPECIAL KIND OF SISTER. (1979) NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston. Elementary

This narrative describes the relationship between a boy who is mentally retarded and his nondisabled sister. Unfortunately, the emphasis of the narrative is on difference, on what the retarded child can't do, and on how his retardation is a bad thing. Her brother's retardation is a nightmare to his sister: He is held responsible for spoiling good times his family might have had but didn't because of other people's negative responses to him. No mention is made of the boy's abilities and very little of the realities of his disability. The focus is on the sister's fears. The book is ostensibly frank or honest, but actually is harsh, almost brutal.

Sobol, Harriet L. MY BROTHER STEVEN IS RETARDED. (1977) NY: Macmillan. Elementary

Presents essentially no positive images of or feelings toward a retarded brother. He attends a segregated school. Perhaps portrays real-life experiences of some siblings of retarded persons, but the focus is exceedingly negative and one-sided. Assumes complete future dependence of the retarded child portrayed.

Stein, Sara B. ABOUT HANDICAPS. (1974) NY: Walker Publishing Co. Elementary

Presents photographs and text specifically for children, and a smaller print text of the left margin specifically for adults. Offers an excellent examination of the causes and results of the fears of able bodied children about disabilities. Presents ways of accepting and confronting the fears of nondisabled children.

Sullivan, Mary Beth & Bourke, Linda. A SHOW OF HANDS: SAY IT IN SIGN LANGUAGE. (1980) Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Elementary/Middle School

A lively and interesting illustrated presentation of sign language that includes the manual alphabet as well as simple ASL signs. The illustrations include a variety of people and images, although none are in color. The text emphasizes the distance which exists between deaf and hearing people, largely because of the unwillingness of hearing people to learn sign language as an alternate means of communication.

Sullivan, Mary Beth. FEELING FREE. (1979) Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, Inc. Elementary/Middle School

Based on a television series, this volume consists of the experiences of a group of junior high school-aged boys and girls with various disabilities. Stories and activities focus on the lives of disabled children, most of whom attend integrated or mainstreamed classes and schools. No mention of children with severe disabilities is made. Emphasis is on raising the awareness of children about disabled children's lives, interests, and difficulties.

Taylor, Theodore. THE CAY. (1970) NY: Avon Books. Middle School/High School

Explores a particular disability -- blindness -- which is used more as a metaphor rather than a fixed reality in an individual's life. An adventure story in which a young Caucasian boy temporarily loses his sight and is rescued, cared for, and taught self-sufficiency by a black man from the West Indies. Only in his blindness and his dependency on the old black man is the boy able to get beyond his racist assumptions and upbringing. The story is much more about other elements of human relations than it is about having a disability.

Winch, B.L. HANDICAPPED. . . HOW DOES IT FEEL? (1981) Rolling Hills Estates, CA: B. L. Winch Assoc. Elementary

Concentrates on physical disabilities as well as learning and developmental disabilities. Includes clear presentations of different disabilities. Specifically empnasizes what disabled children can do. A workbook for mainstreaming.

Wolf, Bernard. CONNIE'S NEW EYES. (1976) NY: Pocket Books. Middle School/High School

Story focuses on a dog who will become a guide dog, and then on a young blind woman's life after the dog becomes hers. Connie lives independently and works as a teacher in a special class with disabled children, mostly pre-school-aged and one teenager. Connie's self-sufficiency is emphasized by the focus on her day-to-day life and struggles. Detailed photographs accompany the text throughout.

Young, Helen. WHAT DIFFERENCE DOES IT MAKE, DANNY? (1980) London: Andre Deutsch Ltd. Middle School

Story about a young boy with epilepsy. Good illustration of how a disability that is not a crucial difficulty in an individual's life becomes a condition that is handicapping, as a result of an able bodied person's fears and misunderstanding of the disability.

D. Selected Inservice Guides: Activities for Students

Barnes, E., Berrigan, C. and Biklen, D. What's the difference? Teaching positive attitudes toward people with disabilities. Syracuse, NY: Human Policy Press, 1978.

Benham, H. Feeling free activities and stories. New York, NY: Scholastic Book Services, 1978.

Bookbinder, S. Mainstreaming, what every child needs to know about disabilities. Boston, MA: The Exceptional Parent Press, 1978.

Cohen, S., Koehler, N. and Grand, C. Accepting individual differences curriculum. Niles, IL: Developmental Learning Materials, 1977.

Committee on Youth Development. People just like you. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979.

Fluegelman, A. More New Games. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1981.

Fluegelman, A. (Ed.) The New Games Book. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1976.

Fruehling, R., Brown, S. and Hemphill, N.J. Hawaii Integration Project, Regular education social studies curriculum. Honolulu, HA: University of Hawaii, 1982.

Hamre-Nietupski, S. and Nietupski, J. Integral involvement of severely handicapped students within regular public schools. The Journal of the Association for the Severely Handicapped, 1981, 6 (2), 30-39.

Hawaii Integration Project. The special friends program: A trainer's manual for integrated school settings. Honolulu, HA: University of Hawaii, 1980.

Nietupski, J., Hamre-Nietupski, S., Scheutz, G. and Ockwood, L. Severely handicapped students in regular schools. Milwaukee, WI: Milwaukee Public Schools, 1980.

The K.I.D.S. project staff. The trainers manual. Berkeley, CA: The Center for Independent Living, 1981.

Wuerch, B.B. and Voeltz, L.M. The Ho'onanea program: A leisure curriculum component for severely handicapped children and youth. Honolulu, HA: University of Hawaii Department of Special Education, 1981.

E. Selected Professional Resources for the Preparation of Inservice

Donaldson, J. Changing attitudes toward handicapped persons: A review and analysis of research. Exceptional Children, 1980, 46 (7), 504-513.

An excellent article reviewing successful and not-so-successful approaches to attitude change.

Edwards, J.P. We are people first, our handicaps are secondary. Ednick Inc, Box 3612, Portland, OR 97208, 1982.

Haskins, J. and Stifle, J.M. The quiet revolution: The struggle for the rights pf disabjed Americans. New York, NY: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1979.

Lloyd, D. and Erickson, D. A directory of special education resources. Reston, VA: ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children, 1981.

Mailing addresses, telephone numbers, and contact persons for a variety of organizations, including those which distribute materials useful for inservice presentations.

Makas, E. Attitudes and disability: An annotated bibliography, 1975-1981. Washington, DC: Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute on Attitudinal, Legal, and Leisure Barriers, The George Washington University, 603 Park Lane Building, 2025 I Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20052.

An excellent and exhaustive review of the literature (371 pages).

Topp, D.J. Law and disability: A selected annotated bibliography of articles in legal periodicals, 1976-1978. Washington, DC: Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute on Attitudinal, Legal, and Leisure Barriers, The George Washington University, 603 Park Lane Building, 2025 I Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20052.

Wehman, P. Appendix: Annotated bibliography on employability of disabled persons. In Competitive employment: New horizons for severely disabled individuals. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brooks Publishers, 1982.

A review of recent research on the economic futures of disabled persons, useful for informational presentations.

F. Audio Cassettes

1. Civil Rights for the Handicapped (1 tape; 59 mins. Post-secondary)

Examines effectiveness of two sections of Sec. 504 and 504 of the 1973 Rehabilitation Act. Analyzes attitudes, compliance, training of advocates, enforcement, and budget restriction. Nation-wide participants. (NPR Education Services)

2. Climbing Mt. Rainier (1 tape; 59 mins. Upper secondary, post-secondary)

Firsthand account of climb of Mt. Rainier by a blind outdoorsman, one of nine disabled climbers who reached the summit on 3/3/81. (NPR Education Services)

3. Disability: A Global Concern (3 tapes, 5 parts; 29 mins. each. Post-secondary)

Examines the issue of disability throughout the world from four perspectives: prevention, disabilities in children, rehabilitation programs, social integration of the disabled. (NPR Education Services)

4. Handicapped Children and the Schools (2 tapes, 4 parts; 29 mins. each. Post-secondary; inservice)

Deals with cerebral palsy; mainstreaming the disabled, its concept and value. Examines case of five severely disabled children in a Detroit nursing home denied educational opportunities. Discusses pros and cons of IEPs prepared by teachers and parents of disabled children. (NPR Education Service)

5. International Perspectives (1 tape, 2 parts; 29 mins. each. Post-secondary; rehabilitation counseling)

Ways in which sports and housing have been adapted to accommodate the special needs of disabled citizens; information gathered at the 1980 Olympics for the Disabled in Holland. (NPR Education Services)

6. Retarded Children (3 tapes, 6 parts; 29 mins. each. Post-secondary)

Emphasizes public facilities for the retarded by visiting institutions for the profoundly retarded and multiply-disabled child as well as schools for educable mentally retarded. Interviews with teachers, therapists, experts, and retarded children. Sites visited in New Mexico, Missouri, and Virginia. (NPR Education Services)

7. Family Living Series. (Part 1: 5 tapes; 30 mins.; Part 2: 3 tapes, 30 mins. Post-secondary)

Highlights concepts of positive reinforcement, pinpointing and tracking, time out, negotiation, contracting with extension of the techniques and applications to more complex situations. (Research Press)

G. Films

1. A Day in the Life of Bonnie Consolo: Arthur Barr Productions, Inc.

16 mm; color, sound; 16 minutes. Grade 3 - High School

A realistic portrait of a woman born without arms. She leads a productive life, has two healthy children, and shares her views on human differences with viewers as she is seen going about her daily activities.

2. Colin & Ricky: Selections from Special Delivery, Lawren Productions, Inc.

16 mm; color; 9 minutes. Grades 3-8

A third grade boy whose sister is born with Down's syndrome becomes the focus for a dramatized discussion of the family impact of disability.

3. David - Man Alive: Canadian Broadcast Company

16 mm; color. Teen-age

A teen-ager with Down's syndrome talks about himself, and is shown performing in a Canadian Broadcast Company tv production.

4. Feeling Free, Feeling Proud: Theatre Unlimited, San Francisco

16 mm; color; 30 minutes. High school/adult

Theater work with a disabled actress.

5. Keep on Walking: March of Dimes

16 mm; color; 1972; 8 minutes. Grades 2-6

A day in the life of an eleven-year-old boy born without arms. Marty Mimmack talks about his adaptive equipment, and about his reaction to people who stare at him ("I just say 'Hi' and keep on walking").

6. People You'd Like to Know series: Encyclopedia Britannica Corp.

16 mm. Grades 2-6

Ten short films, with one introducing PL 94-142 and one on mental retardation.

Paige (for younger children) - A young girl with Down's syndrome is shown attending a mainstream program, and celebrating her birthday with her family.

Harold (for upper grade students) - A black adolescent who is visually impaired is shown attending middle school in San Francisco.

7. The Positive Show: Special Delivery Series, Lawren Productions, Inc.

16 mm; color. Elementary
Breaking stereotypes about various disabilities (retardation, blindness) and emphasizing positive attitudes toward disabled people.

8. Transitions: Perennial Education, Inc.

16 mm; color; 29 minutes. Junior high/adult

Alternatives to institutional or group living for the disabled.

H. REACH Videotapes

1. Project REACH: Making New Friends

3/4"; color; seven minutes. Parents and professionals. Social interactions between nondisabled students and students with severe disabilities are shown, as well as inservice sessions and peer tutoring in an integrated elementary school.

2. Presidio Peer Tutors

3/4"; color; nine minutes. Parents and professionals. Nondisabled middle school students are interviewed, and are shown tutoring their severely disabled schoolmates.

I. Filmstrips

1. Different from You . . . and Like You, Too

Color; 5 minutes; cassette. Elementary (K-3)
Promotes positive interaction with disabled children.

J. Slide Shows

1. Handicapism: Human Policy Press

145 slides with sound and print transcription
Awareness of and information about disabled people and disabling conditions; documentary format.

9. DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE ON DISABILITY ISSUES

These selected abstracts represent the best curent writing on the facilitation of social integration for disabled students.

These are the articles we found most helpful in developing the REACH model for inservice training. We include these abstracts here in the hopes that they will assist our readers in researching and planning their own inservice activities.

Complete copies of these and other references are available for loan or perusal at the REACH/CRI Library, 612 Font Boulevard, San Francisco, California 94132.

Ashmore, R.D.

(Research)

Background considerations in developing strategies for changing attitudes and behavior toward the mentally retarded

In M. Begab and S. Richardson (Eds.), The mentally retarded and society: A social science perspective. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1975, 159-174.
39 refs

ABSTRACT

This chapter examines research concerning atttitudes and perceptions formed by prejudiced individuals, with the intent to apply basic ideas on the formation, maintenance, and change of attitudes to the development of more positive attitudes toward the mentally retarded. The author discusses Rokeach's schema for conceptualizing the arrangements of attitudes regarding self-concept and values, and shows how this schema relates to some major theories of attitude change. Three cognitive-affective syndromes that are prominent in the development and maintenance of prejudice are outlined. Strategies for attitude change are reviewed in terms of the ways they operate in the area of race relations. New directions in psychological research and theory regarding integroup relations are proposed in two categories: 1) the influence of early learning experiences on the development of prejudice, and 2) how attitudes and behaviors of the nominally 'non-prejudiced' contribute to negative integroup relations. The author suggests four background considerations to guide the creation of programs for increasing positive atttitudes toward the mentally retarded: 1) careful identification of the target group and a tailored program taking into account the impact of negative attitudes on people's feelings and behavior; 2) procedures to change attitudes that involve forced compliance and self-confrontation; 3) mass media campaigns that stress the strengths of and diversity among the retarded, and 4) educational curricula designed to foster awareness of 'differences.'

Attitudes (Change in)
Mentally retarded
Research needs

Dewar, R. (Progr Descr)

Peer acceptance of handicapped students

TEACHING Exceptional Children, 1982, 14(5), 188-193

ABSTRACT

The Child Awareness Program (CAP) of the St. Charles, Missouri public schools was designed to develop positive attitudes in non-handicapped children toward their handicapped peers. Successful elements of the program included pre-selection of site representatives to work with special education teachers in developing a comprehensive curriculum. Special events were held in participating schools to motivate and involve their students and teachers. The curriculum included simulations by nonhandicapped students of various handicapping conditions, predesigned lesson plans for the convenience of the regular classroom teacher, use of existing materials, and selection of relevant new materials. Handicapped students and adults were recruited as guest speakers. This carefully designed program of child awareness activities enhanced the nonhandicapped children's awareness of their handicapped peers.

Inservice (Awareness)

Donaldson, J.

(Research)

Changing attitudes toward handicapped persons: A review and analysis of research

Exceptional Children, 1980, 46(7), 504-514
44 refs

ABSTRACT

This article reviews research on the modification of attitudes toward disabled persons with a view to locating the commonalities in successful interventions to modify attitudes. Findings are displayed and discussed in terms of three important factors in reducing unfavorable attitudes toward the disabled: 1) providing an equal status relationship; 2) allowing sanctioned but unobserved staring at the handicapped, and 3) avoiding unconscious reinforcement of stereotypes. The author examines several theoretical models to explain successful interventions. Particular interventions which effected positive attitudinal changes included 1) a four-week summer workshop with regular classroom teachers and administrators focusing on the affective domain; 2) using disabled persons to present live and videotaped panel discussion, and 3) a pilot integration project with a continuum of support services. The author suggests that future research concentrate on demonstrating the power of video techniques in changing attitudes, and on identifying or developing effective media efforts.

Attitudes (Change in; Toward SD)
Research needs

Dunlop, K.H., Stoneman, Z., and Cantrell, M.L. (Research)

Social interaction of exceptional and other children in a mainstreamed preschool classroom

Exceptional Children, 1980, 47(2), 132-141
28 refs

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the social interaction of handicapped and nonhandicapped children in an integrated, model preschool program. Twelve students were studied: six were selected by their teachers as likely candidates for special education classes if in a public school, and six randomly selected nonhandicapped children formed the contrast group. Observational and sociometric techniques were used. The project-developed observation instrument focused on 26 behaviors in four categories. Sociometric measures included a saliency task and a 'happy faces' task. Each child was observed in randomly determined order twice weekly for six months. Data were generated on specific types of interaction and peer or adult targets of interaction. Results of multivariate and univariate analyses indicated the following: 1) There were minimal differences between handicapped and nonhandicapped children in overall proportion of time spend in solitary activities, dominant and cooperative interactions, and adult-child interactions; 2) The two groups changed differentially over time in their solitary and dominant activities and were more similar in the final time period, and 3) There were significant differences over time in the two groups' proportions of interactions with handicapped peers, nonhandicapped peers, and mixed groups of both--resulting in a notable increase in homogeneity between the two groups. The authors suggest that young handicapped children can be provided with multiple opportunities for developing social competencies in an integrated and structured environment.

Assessment instruments (social)
Integrated learning environment
Preschool
Social interaction

Gottlieb, J. (Research)

Public, peer, and professional attitudes toward mentally retarded persons

In M. Begab & S. Richardson (Eds.), The mentally retarded and society: A social science perspective. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1975, 99-125.
79 refs

ABSTRACT

This chapter reviews studies of public attitudes toward the mentally retarded with particular emphasis on how these attitudes affect the emerging community-based programs. With relation to studies of public attitudes, the potential biasing effect of the attitude referent examined, subject characteristics associated with particular attitudes are presented, and literature on attitude change is indicated. With regard to peer attitudes toward the mentally retarded, sociometric studies are examined and attitudinal studies using more traditional scales (i.e., questionnaires) are discussed. The majority of research on professionals' attitudes has been conducted with teachers; these studies are compared and analyzed. The author proposes two needs in future research in this area: studying the relationship between attitudes and behavior by and toward the retarded, and developing reliable, multifaceted instruments for measuring attitudes so as to discern the dimensions of attitudes held toward mentally retarded persons.

Attitudes (Towards SD)
Community-based programming
Mentally retarded
Research needs

121

Gresham, F.M. (Research)

Misguided mainstreaming: The case for social skills training with handicapped children

Exceptional Children, 1982, 48, 422-433

ABSTRACT

Evidence is reviewed on the importance of training handicapped children in the social skills necessary for their effective social interaction and peer acceptance. Several assessment techniques developed for assessing social skills and training handicapped children are also discussed. Three specific types of social skills training are presented: manipulation of antecedents, manipulation of consequences, and modeling. The author asserts that enough empirical evidence exists to suggest that the social skills training of handicapped children aids them to interact more positively and to become better accepted by their peers. Recent research suggests that handicapped children can imitate appropriate social behaviors when modeling is planned and sequenced. Several social skills curricula are mentioned that facilitate the beneficial effects of mainstreaming. The author concludes that the body of research reviewed does not support the commonly held notion that mainstreaming per se will result in increased social interaction and social acceptance of the severely handicapped.

Assessment instruments (social)
Elementary
Social skill development

Guralnick, M.J. (Research)

The value of integrating handicapped and nonhandicapped preschool children

American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, April 1976, 236-245
32 refs

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the potential benefits to handicapped children from observing and interacting with peers. A conceptual and empirical framework of procedures to promote the development of handicapped perschool children is presented. After reviewing studies on the integration of handicapped with nonhandicapped students, the author suggests that the way interactions are systematically guided or encouraged is a critical element in positive interactions. Examination of the studies revealed three effective strategies to promote interaction: planning, using peers as change agents, and using older peers as resources to promote social play and language usage. The author proposes the following critical variables as elements in research and programming for integrated settings: 1) the chronological age of the peer group; 2) the level of handicapped children's observational skills; 3) which types of behavior are more susceptible to change through peer modeling and reinforcement; 4) how to structure the modeling context; 5) characteristics of the handicapped children and the severity of their handicaps; and 6) characteristics of the models as educational and therapeutic resources.

Integrated learning environment
Integration (Effects of; Methods for)
Interactions (Promoting SD/ND)
Peer tutors
Preschool
Research needs

Hamre-Nietupski, S. and Nietupski, J. (Serv Del'y)

Integral involvement of severely handicapped students within regular public schools

The Journal of the Association for the Severely Handicapped, 1981, 6, 30-39
7 refs

ABSTRACT

A comprehensive array of formal and informal methods are presented for promoting positive interactions between severely handicapped students and their nonhandicapped peers. Directed toward faculty, students, and parents, these 23 strategies include preintegration activities, systematic integration procedures, and suggested opportunities for parent involvement at several levels. Such ongoing, systematic efforts are required to ensure that the least restrictive educational environment is prepared and maintained for severely handicapped students so they can become an integral part of the schools they attend.

Integrated learning environment
Interactions (promoting SD/ND)

Hutson, H. (Serv Del'y)

Inservice best practices: The learnings of general education (Unpublished manuscript)

Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, National Inservice Network, 1979

ABSTRACT

This paper describes a composite model of exemplary inservice education practices culled from a range of sources and basic references in the field. The findings are synthesized into a thematic listing to reflect the 'best thinking' about best inservice practices. Three domains of inservice are differentiated: the procedural, the substantive, and the conceptual; fifteen 'best practices' in inservice education are summarized. In the procedural domain, best practices are listed by functions of control of, support of, and delivery of inservice. In the substantial domain, best practices cover dimensions of content and practice. In the conceptual domain, best practices follow a developmental model and are an integral part of the total school program.

Administrative issues
Inservice practices

(Research)

Jones, T.W., Sowell, V.M., Jones, J.K., and Butler, L.G.

Changing children's perceptions of handicapped children

Exceptional Children, 1981, 47(5), 365-368
10 refs

ABSTRACT

A concentrated program of simulations, interviews, films, and discussions attempted to influence children's perceptions of mentally or physically handicapped people. Seventy-four children from an ungraded elementary school participated in the study and were randomly assigned to two groups for treatment. Group A was pre-post-tested on an attitude scale that described characteristics of handicapped people negatively, neutrally, and positively. Group B was post-tested only. Participants were rotated in groups through the 2-1/2 hour sessions of six activities each, with a lapse of one week between each session. Activities showed an array of needs and abilities of deaf, blind, mentally retarded, and physically handicapped people. Three post-sessions in creative writing and group discussion focused on helping the participants recognize and synthesize their perceptions of handicapped people. "T" tests were used to identify change in scores of Group A children and to compare Group A pretest scores with the post-test scores of Group B. Both groups' post-test scores were compared and item analysis was also performed. Results indicated that after the treatment, girls demonstrated more positive perceptions of handicapped people than did boys, and that positive change was shown in twelve of the twenty items on the scale. The authors conclude that children's perceptions of handicapped people can be altered via short training, readily available resources, and a planned program.

Attitude (change)
Elementary
Inservice (awareness)

McHale, S. and Simeonsson, R.J. (Research)

Effects of interaction on nonhandicapped children's attitudes toward autistic children

American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 1980, 85(1), 18-24
14 refs

ABSTRACT

Second and third graders (N=28) were interviewed concerning their attitudes and understanding of children who exhibited childhood autism confounded by mental retardation. The interviews took place before and after the ND children had participated in a week of daily, half-hour play sessions with a class of autistic children. Comparisons of the nonhandicapped children's attitude at each time indicated that they were overwhelmingly positive on both occasions. Contrary to earlier findings, nonhandicapped children did not express more negative attitudes as a result of their contact with autistic children; however, they did display in increase in their understanding of autistic children after contact. The children's understanding of autism was positively related to the frequency of their communication with the autistic children on the first day of interaction, and their positive attitudes and frequency of solitary play were negatively correlated. The authors discuss the implications of the results for the design and implementation of mainstreaming programs.

Attitudes (ND toward SD)
Elementary/autism
Interactions (promoting SD/ND)

Nietupski, J., Hamre-Nietupski, S., Schuetz, G., and Ockwood, L.
(Serv Del'y)

Severely handicapped students in regular schools: A progress report (1979-80)

Milwaukee, WI: Milwaukee Public Schools, 1980
13 refs

ABSTRACT

This monograph describes the integration efforts conducted by the Milwaukee public schools during one school year. Serving as a practical handbook to guide a school district's integration program, the document contains the following sections: 1) An array of formal and informal methods to show how severely handicapped students become an integral part of their regular public school environments; 2) Specific considerations for and recommendations to teachers assigned to teach handicapped students in a regular school setting; 3) A report of a program using nonhandicapped peer tutors to improve the playground skills of moderately and severely handicapped students, including an outline of training sessions for the tutors; 4) A report of experiences through which severely handicapped students at two middle schools interacted with nonhandicapped persons; 5) A description of the variety of normalized integration experiences at a high school; 6) The content of sensitization sessions held in several regular schools that document the progress of efforts toward integration and serve as guidelines for implementing future sessions, and 7) Recommendations for future efforts to continue and expand the progress made toward a least restrictive environment. Appendices include a media reference list for elementary, middle, and high schools.

Inservice (Sensitization)
Integration (Methods for)
Interactions (Promoting SD/ND)
Peer tutors

Nordquist, V.M.

A behavioral approach to the analysis of peer interactions (Research)

In M. Guralnick (Ed.), Early intervention and the integration of handicapped and nonhandicapped children. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1978, 53-85.
94 refs

ABSTRACT

This chapter reviews research on early peer interactions from 1920-1975, noting gaps in the literature as to procedures teachers might apply to develop peer interactions between handicapped and nonhandicapped students. Teachers are directed to turn to the behavioral literature for useful strategies to promote integration, and the author suggests several particular procedures to try in an integrated setting: 1) Those which draw teachers' attention to peer aggression and peer withdrawal, particularly when using confederate peers to prompt interactions; 2) Those which are effective in facilitating peer interaction; 3) Those which train nonhandicapped children to model and reinforce interactive responses from handicapped students, and 4) Those which consider the physical and spatial events that affect the range and probabilities of peer interaction. The author discusses the challenge to the operant condition view of peer interactions by considering together the questions of durability, setting generality, and behavior covariation. The author recommends that methodological strategies of behavior analysis should include the measurement of multiple behaviors in several settings over longer periods of time.

Behavior (Analysis of)
Integration (Methods for)
Interactions (Promoting SD/ND)

Pumpian, I.R. (Research)

Variables effecting attitudes toward the employability of severely handicapped adults

Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1981
71 refs

ABSTRACT

This thesis describes a study to identify the variables that affect nonhandicapped persons' perceptions of the potential employability of severely handicapped persons. An attitude survey was developed and administered to two subject populations: 160 nonhandicapped students from four Madison high schools, and 57 employees from two types of local businesses. The students were organized into three groups based on their degree of contact with severely handicapped students; the employees were organized in two groups--one from businesses where there was job training for the severely handicapped, and one contrast group. Parametric meausres were used to analyze the data. For the high school sample, analysis revealed that the contact group displayed significantly more positive attitude scores than did the other two groups. Results from the employee sample indicated that employees in one business where the severely handicapped were trained showed significantly more favorable attitudes toward their employability than did employees from the contrast group. The author discusses the findings in terms of their concurrence with previous research and the limitations of the methodology used. The author concludes that it is possible to create a climate for employability for severely handicapped persons in a wide range of integrated vocational environments that include comprehensive training of the severely handicapped and arranged and varied contacts with the severely handicapped and nonhandicapped. Suggestions are made for preservie and inservice activities, and supportive administrative practices are presented. Future research needs are suggested in the areas of instrument design, broader population sampling, and assessment of attitudes of nonhandicapped persons who are informed about employment opportunities for the severely handicapped.

Attitudes (Toward SD)
Inservice (Awareness)
Integration (Effects of)
Research needs
Vocational ed. programming

Rynders, J.E., Johnson, R.T., Johnson, D.W., and Schmidt, B.

(Research)

Producing positive interaction among Down Syndrome and nonhandicapped teenagers through cooperative goal structuring

Article submitted for publication, 1980.

ABSTRACT

This article describes a study to compare the effects of cooperative, competetive, and individualistic goal structuring on the behavioral interaction and social attraction of adolescents. Subjects (N=30, 12 with Down Syndrome) participated in a recreational program one hour per week for eight weeks. They were divided into three groups where outcomes would be maximized by whether subjects cooperated, competed, or acted individualistically. Analysis revealed that in the cooperative condition, the number of positive heterogeneous interactions differed significantly from those in the other two groups. The authors discuss the findings in terms of how cooperative goal structuring promoted praise, encouragement, and support between nonhandicapped and handicapped students, as well as within each respective group. Despite the poor performance of the Down Syndrome participants, positive interactions and statements of liking occurred among themselves and with their nonhandicapped peers. The authors suggest that this positive interaction and personal attraction resulted from facilitating the attainment of a positive goal. The authors conclude that low-achieving students can be placed in a heterogeneously structured learning group, and that teachers can expect positive attraction and interaction to occur through cooperative goal structuring.

Cooperative learning situations
Integration (Methods for; Effects of)
Interactions (Promoting SD/ND)

Snyder, L., Apolloni, T., and Cooke, T.P. (Research)

Integrated settings at the early childhood level: The role of nonretarded peers

Exceptional Children, 1977, 43(5), 262-266
28 refs

ABSTRACT

Implications of recent studies that have investigated procedures for structuring peer imitation and peer reinforcement at the preschool level are discussed. Analysis of these studies reveals that integrated settings do not necessarily result in increased cross-group imitation and social interaction between handicapped and nonhandicapped children. The authors assert that teaching procedures designed to foster these effects are needed if retarded and other handicapped children are to benefit optimally from integrated school programming. Four models are proposed to promote interaction in integrated settings; within each model, specific teaching tactics are presented to ensure their success. These models are: peer modeling, generalized imitation, reinforcing agent, and interpersonal relationship. The authors discuss the implications for research to be drawn from this discussion in terms of four questions which merit further investigation: 1) systematic planning and programming of the desirable setting and procedures to identify for integration to take place; 2) the generalized effects to both groups of placement in integrated settings; 3) the potential effects of early integration on nonretarded participants, and 4) the influence of programming on the attitudinal and affective development of retarded and nonretarded participants.

Integration (Effects of; Methods for)
Interactions (Promoting SD/ND)
Research needs

Stainback, W. and Stainback, S. (Research)

A review of research on interactions between severely handicapped and nonhandicapped students

The Association for the Severely Handicapped Journal, 1981, 6, 23-29
27 refs

ABSTRACTS

The authors review recent research concerning interactions in integrated settings in light of four topics: interactions that occur; the influence of these interactions on the students involved; the communication characteristics of the interactions, and ways to promote interactions. They also examine studies that discuss interactions between the severely handicapped and their mildly handicapped and nonhandicapped peers. The authors conclude that promoting interactions between severely handicapped and nonhandicapped students constitutes a feasible educational objective that can produce benefits for both groups. The authors suggest future research directions in three general areas: 1) Procedures to promote interactions between severely and nonhandicapped students; 2) Frequency and types of interaction to be promoted, and 3) Longitudinal research with students of various chronological ages in a variety of settings.

Integrated learning environment
Interactions (promoting SD/ND)
Research needs

Stainback, W. and Stainback, S. (Research)

The need for research on training nonhandicapped students to interact with severely retarded students

Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded, 1982, 17(1), 12-16
27 refs

ABSTRACT

Existing research is reviewed in the training of nonhandicapped peers and a rationale for their training is outlined. Specific reasons offered by the authors to support peer training are offered. It is argued that social preference behaviors of the nonhandicapped need to be modified, that it is potentially limiting to focus all training on those who are not considered socially competent, and that the likelihood exists for effective generalization when the nonhandicapped are trained. Other reasons offered to support the authors' position for training of nonhandicapped peers are that they will be future employers of the retarded. The authors conclude that there is a need to determine whether training the nonhandicapped is a necessary and effective variable in reaching the goal of severely retarded/nonhandicapped interactions. They suggest that a priority area for future research is training of the nonhandicapped to interact with severely retarded students.

Peer training
Research needs

(Research)

Stainback, W., Stainback, S. Rasche, D. and Anderson, R.J.

Three methods for encouraging interactions between severely retarded and nonhandicapped students

Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded 1981, 16, 188-192
22 refs

ABSTRACT

Physical placement of severely retarded students in regular classrooms without systematic procedures to promote social interaction between them and their nonhandicapped peers does not meet the goal of meaningful social integration. Relevant research is cited in methods by which classroom teachers can guide and encourage interactions between severely retarded and nonhandicapped students in integrated classrooms. The authors reach several conclusions, drawn from the research: 1) Interaction is facilitated in the classroom by small, heterogeneous group structuring, cooperative group goal orientation, and available toys and materials to promote socialization; 2) There are specific procedures to train severely retarded students to engage in direct social interactional behaviors with nonhandicapped students in integrated settings, and 3) It may be necessary to train nonhandicapped students in knowledge of severely retarded students' disabling condition so as to complement the programmatic efforts to facilitate integration. However, more research is needed in this latter area.

Classroom management strategies
Interactions (promoting SD/ND)
Research needs

Voeltz, L.M. (Research)

Children's attitudes toward handicapped peers

American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 1980, 84(3), 455-464
25 refs

ABSTRACT

Existing attitudes of regular education children toward their severely handicapped peers were studied as the movement of severely handicapped children into regular education classrooms began. Five elementary schools (Grades 2-6) and two elementary schools (Grade 7 only) in Hawaii participated in the study; 2,636 students responded to the attitude survey administered. Schools were selected to represent three levels of contact with severely handicapped children: no-contact, low-contact, and high-contact. The high-contact school had participated in a one-semster 'Special Friends' program to promote positive peer interaction between the two groups. Factor analysis of the survey responses revealed four factors underlying attitudes toward severely handicapped students: social-contact willingness, deviance consequation, and two actual contact dimensions. Upper grade children in the high-contact schools expressed the most accepting attitudes toward their severely handicapped peers. Upper grade children in the low-contact schools were more accepting than lower grade children in the same school. All children from the no-contact school scored the lowest, but showed an increased tendency toward acceptance from Grades 2 upward. Girls at the high-contact school scored highest in attitudes of acceptance. The author discusses the results in terms of the challenges presented in designing interventions to increase positive interactions between nonhandicapped and severely handicapped children, stemming from the changing nature of nonhandicapped children's attitudes. The author discusses contradictory data in the study in terms of the comparative data on intelligence as a variable in attitude measurement. The author concludes that educators must be determined to give all children the opportunity and necessary assistance to develop positive interaction patterns in integrated school settings.

Assessment instruments (social)
Attitude (change)
Interactins (promoting SD/ND)

10. APPENDIX

Classroom: _____ Name: _____

A. Needs Assessment for Administrators and Teachers

Please respond to the following questions or statements by circling, checking, or completing the appropriate items. Kindly provide written comments, if you choose, where indicated.

I. Personal and Demographic Data

1. Sex:
   Male ___
   Female ___

2. Level of school(s) which you serve
   Elementary ___
   Middle ___
   Junior High ___
   Senior High ___

3. Number of years of full-time teaching experience:
   Elementary Level _____
   Middle Level _____
   Junior High Level _____
   Senior High Level _____

4. Total number of pupils in your class (current year): _____

5. Degrees held:
   Bachelor's ___
   Master's ___
   Doctorate ___

6. Previous and current training in special eduction (check appropriate items):
   Undergraduate major in special education _____
   Undergraduate minor in special education _____
   Graduate major in special education _____
   Graduate minor in special education _____
   None of the above _____

* Adapted from Davis, W.E. Attitude Assessment for Administrators. Unpublished manuscript, University of Maine at Orono, 1981.

7. Formal courses in special education (undergraduate, graduate, or continuing education):

   None ____

   One ____

   Two ____

   Three or More ____

8. Please estimate the relative amount of exposure which you have had to people with disabilities.

None	Some	Moderate	High	Very High	N.A. (not applicable) or Unable to Respond
1	2	3	4	5	N

9. Please indicate your perception of the need for some formal training in the area of special education for individuals preparing to be public school teachers.

None	Some	Moderate	High	Very High	N.A. or Unable to Respond
1	2	3	4	5	N

10. Since the passage of federal and state legislation dealing with disabled children, please estimate the increase in amount of your professional time which is being devoted to special education matters.

None	Mild	Moderate	Major	Extremely Significant	N.A. or Unable to Respond
1	2	3	4	5	N

11. If you needed information/actual help related to educating a special education student, would you have access to any of the following:

Special resource person _____ Speech therapist _____ Social worker _____

Education psychologist _____

Special education consultant from: University _____ State department ___

II. Factors Affecting Integration

What do you consider are the major issues affecting the integration of disabled children in your school(s). Please circle a response for each item listed below:

	Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	N.A. or Unable to Respond
1. Attitudes of regular class teachers toward integration.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
2. Skills of regular class teachers to deal effectively with Special Ed. Students.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
3. Parental and community attitudes toward integration.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
4. Availability of training for parents of regular ed. students....	1	2	3	4	5	N
5. Attitudes of regular class children toward integrating disabled children.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
6. Attitudes of parents of disabled children toward integration....	1	2	3	4	5	N
7. Administrative support	1	2	3	4	5	N

	Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	N.A. or Unable to Respond
8. Availability of professional support services (psychologist, speech therapist, special education personnel, etc.).....	1	2	3	4	5	N
9. Availability of paraprofessional support services (teacher aides, etc.).....	1	2	3	4	5	N
10. Knowledge of curriculum materials and instructional programs in regular class setting with special ed. child.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
11. Regular class teacher/pupil ratios.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
12. Understanding of the concept and purpose of integration on the part of regular class teachers.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
13. Understanding the implications of federal and state laws for education of the disabled.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
14. Pupil and/or class scheduling problems.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
15. Physical space (room for location of special education personnel who could facilitate integration process).....	1	2	3	4	5	N

Others/Comments (please add any other issues which you perceive, or elaborate upon those listed if you wish).

III. Teacher Skills

In order to make integration a successful process, what skills do feel that a teacher needs to have?

	Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	N.A. or Unable to Respond
1. Pupil observation skills.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
2. Informal pupil assessment techniques..	1	2	3	4	5	N
3. Skill in understanding and interpreting diagnostic tests.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
4. Pupil management techniques.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
5. Awareness and utilization of special education materials and equipment.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
6. Knowledge of special education teaching procedures and techniques (i.e. task analysis and prompting).....	1	2	3	4	5	N
7. Knowledge of pertinent federal and state legislation dealing with children.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
8. Awareness of available professional support services and personnel	1	2	3	4	5	N
9. Techniques for communicating with parents...	1	2	3	4	5	N
10. Ability to individualize instructional programs.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
11. General knowledge about a variety of disabling conditions...	1	2	3	4	5	N
12. Knowledge of emergency medical procedures (i.e. in case of seizure, choking, etc.)..	1	2	3	4	5	N

(Continued on next page)

	Not Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important	N.A. or Unable to Respond
13. Operant conditioning, behavior management skills.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
14. Knowledge of Special Education Teaching.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
15. Knowledge of school and community resources available for the disabled.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
16. Realistic expectations for long-term functioning of severely disabled persons.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
17. Overview of contemporary philosophical issues in special education (least restrictive environment; various suggested programming alternatives, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	N
18. Dealing with parents of disabled children.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
19. Dealing with child advocacy groups.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
20. Community public relations relating to special education matters.	1	2	3	4	5	N

IV. Teacher Inservice

In general, what would you consider to be the most effective vehicle for the delivery of inservice training programs to teachers relating to matters of special education and integration?

	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	N.A. or no Opinion
1. Formal university courses concerned with area of special education (offered for credit).....	1	2	3	4	5	N
2. Short-term courses (e.g. 5 weeks), modules.....	1	2	3	4	5	N

(Continued on next page)

	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	N.A. or no Opinion
3. Workshops provided by SFUSD for district in-service credits.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
4. Workshops provided by university personnel.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
5. Workshops provided by State Department of Education.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
6. Worshops provided by out-of-state national authorities.....	1	2	3	4	5	N
7. Provision of self-study resources without utilizing any outside personnel	1	2	3	4	5	N
8. Hands-on experience in special education classroom..	1	2	3	4	5	N
9. Brainstorming sessions between regular and special education teachers.....	1	2	3	4	5	N

B. Assuming that an appropriate in-service training experience could be provided for you within the area of special education, what would your present level of interest be in participating in such.

No Interest	Mild Interest	Moderate Interest	High Interest	Very High Interest	N.A. or Unable to respond
1	2	3	4	5	N

COMMENTS:

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C. What are the major factors which would likely determine your participation in such an in-service training program?

	Not A Factor	Mild	Moderate	Major	Most Important	N.A. or Unable to Respond
1. Relative cost	1	2	3	4	5	N
2. Specific provider(s) of training (individual or group presenting training). . . .	1	2	3	4	5	N
3. Location	1	2	3	4	5	N
4. Time when offered (summer, during school year, etc.) .	1	2	3	4	5	N
5. Ability to apply training toward certification or re-certification credits	1	2	3	4	5	N
6. Availability of university graduate credits for training	1	2	3	4	5	N
7. Released time for in-service training. .	1	2	3	4	5	N
8. Reimbursement for extra hours workshop time.	1	2	3	4	5	N

OTHERS/COMMENTS:

V. STUDENT INSERVICE

A. In assisting you in providing information to regular education students about special education students:

1. Would you be interested in having special instruction for your students?
YES_____ NO_____
If yes, answer the following:

2. What part of your current curriculum could such information complement:
(Check the following)
Health _____ Science _____

Social Studies _____ English/Reading _____

Other (please describe)_____

3. Which of these possible units of study would your students be interested in pursuing:

   Wheelchair Safety _____

   Characteristics of disabled persons_____

   Structures of the ear _____
   eye _____
   nervous system_____

   Individual Differences _____

   Notable disabled people in history _____

   Sign Language _____

4. How much time would you consider spending in your classroom on the above topics?
   e.g. 40 minutes_____
   5 class periods _____
   Other _____

5. Which kinds of instruction would benefit your children most (if checking more than one please prioritize, 1 = most beneficial):

   _____ Being a peer tutor

   _____ Having disabled speakers come into the classroom

   _____ Large group presentations with films and discussions (i.e. assembly)

   _____ Learning stations approach within your own classroom

   _____ Individualized units of study within your own classroom

   _____ "Pull out" program: small group instruction <u>outside</u> your classroom

6. Would your students be interested in participating in a peer tutoring program?

   YES _____ NO_____

   If you answered yes, complete the following:
   How much time could your students give within school hours?_____

   Would they benefit more from tutoring a recreation skill (i.e. ball rolling) or an academic skill (i.e. letter matching)?

   Recreation _____ Academic _____

(Continued on next page)

What time of day would be appropriate for them to do peer tutoring?

Recess _____
Lunch _____
Free Time _____
P.E. _____
After School _____
Other _____

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B. Sample Informational Letter to
Peer Tutors/Special Friends

Middle School

Peer Tutoring is a chance to learn about the Special Education program and participate in our teaching methods. It is a chance to gain new experiences and friendships, and to spend time with our students in the community.

Peer tutoring is a class which can be taken in place of a Unified Arts course. It is arranged with your counselor and me, and requires your parents' permission. Peer tutors receive credit, a grade, and a citizenship mark for each quarter.

As a peer tutor, you will be taught how to teach one or two students a few very specific skills. You will be continually assisted by me and the other classroom staff. The programs will change as the students' needs change. These programs might be run in the classroom or in various parts of the school (such as taking attendance). You might also be involved with programs taught off campus (such as: grocery shopping, laundry, or restaurant use, etc.). For those programs permissions slips will be sent home for your parents' approval.

Part of your time will be spent participating in leisure activities which you and my students might enjoy together. We will meet every 2 or 3 weeks as a group to answer questions you might have about our students that you don't get a chance to ask in class. You will also see films and hear from guest speakers.

<u>The requirements for the class are listed below</u>:

1. You will be expected to be prompt, attentive, and complete work given to you.

2. You will be required to complete one project for the quarter: such as making a special piece of equipment or materials for the class; making a game for a specific student; or writing a journal about your experiences.

3. You will be required to meet with the other tutors and volunteers once every 2 to 3 weeks.

4. You will be required to participate in demonstrating to 6th grade social studies classes or other groups what you do as a peer tutor -- either by talking or helping to show slides or making a poster, etc.

Peer tutoring is lots of fun. It is a new challenge and a chance to do something different. If you are interested, contact your counsellor and me. The sooner the better! There is only room for 3 or 4 students each period.

Sample Letter to Peer Tutors/Special Friends

Middle School

Friendship is feelings shared between people. You have volunteered to be a friend to another student with special needs. We all have special needs -- each of us in our own way. You are gaining a new kind of friendship as you step out of your uneasiness.

This program will be a way for you to participate with the special education students at our school. You will be matched with a selected student and will agree to meet with that student each week at an arranged time during the school day. You will spend time getting to know each other and have a chance to work together on special projects.

Once every two weeks you will meet with Ms. Gee and the other volunteers and peer tutors. In these meetings you'll have a chance to talk about your different experiences and share with each other about your new friendships. You will hear guest speakers and see films about disabled people. It will also give you a chance to ask questions that you are curious about and to bring up ideas for projects you wish to work on individually or as a group. The club will elect officers at our first meeting.

We will meet regularly on Thursdays at lunchtime every 2 to 3 weeks.

You are always welcome to spend time with our students even when you are not assigned to them. However, you will be expected to be responsible for your assigned time and place and carry it out regularly unless absent or otherwise excused.

If any of you wish to do reports for classes on your activities with us, you should see Ms. Gee after school.

You will probably have many questions at first. Please ask Ms. Gee or one of her assistants, Ms. Mellon or Ms. Leonard. It is always best to ask us, rather than holding it in. Your friends may have questions about what you do as a volunteer. If they ask you things you can't answer, come and ask us!

Here's to a great semester! Have fun! Thanks for your time!

Your assignment for the semester is: _____

_____

You will earn _____ service points if you attend regularly.

C. Sample Informational Letter to Parents
of Special Friends
Elementary Level

Dear Parent(s),

Your child has expressed an interest in participating in the Special Friends-Peer Tutoring program with the class of severely handicapped pupils at Sutro School. At this point some students are participating on a limited basis during free or non-academic periods. However, the REACH and staff want to be sure that parents are well informed about this activity, and that we have your approval for your child's involvement.

Enclosed you will find a "contract" or plan written by your child, his or her classroom teacher, and or the teachers of the severely handicapped classes. This contract describes the specific activities with which your child will be involved and responsibilities he/she will have. Please read the contract, indicate your approval by signing below, and send it back to school with your son or daughter.

Thank you.

If you have any questions about REACH or the Special Friends program, please do not hesitate to call us at 469-1306 or 752-4203. Thanks again for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Principal

AH/bb
Enclosure

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D. Sample

Leisure Time Materials and Equipment

Preschool

Students 3-5½ Years Old

Toy	Cost
Chubby Bear - battery operated toy	24.95
Rev-em Up Racer - toy car	4.99
Super Looper - car racing set	9.95
Lite Brite - picture refills	3.98
Lite Brite - bulb refills	4.98
Skedoodle - drawing and design machine	11.88
Bring Along a song - cassette player toy	12.88
Ring-a-dingy Typewriter	3.98
Alphie - computer toy	29.88
Water Toy	4.98
Hands Down - game	6.88
Nerf Hot Shot - toy car	5.95
Funny Rod with Siren - battery operated toy car	9.95
Highway Patro Car	22.95
Movie Viewer Cartridge	4.98
High Rolleys - toy animal	5.95
Storytape and Book	7.95
Soccer Ball	4.98
Viewmaster	2.98
Viewmaster Cards	2.50
Water game	$ 4.98
Paint and swirl	9.95
Movie viewer	11.95
Round bells	11.95
Books	1.95
Scooter tooter	4.97

Sample

Leisure Time Materials and Equipment

Elementary

Students 5-12 Years Old

Toy	Cost
Wooden Puzzle	$ 2.66
Roller Skates	13.49
Knee Pads	3.97
City Garage	12.97
Match Box Cars	1.18
Chinese Jacks	.97
Smerf Magic Catch Mitt	4.69
Hula Hoop	3.38
Mr. Pop	9.97
Cootie	3.47
Ants in Pants	3.97
Power Hitter	12.97
Ring Toss	5.97
Soft Frisbee Game	8.90
Bowling Game	5.97
Nerf Hoop	1.87
Mighty Men & Monster Masks	9.48
Play Douge	2.97
Fun Factory	4.97
Candy Land	$ 4.66
Hungry Hippo	12.97
Swirl Art	6.97
Chutes and Ladders	$ 2.94
Legos (basic building set)	7.97
Puzzles (24 piece)	1.24
Pac Man	44.97
Uno 496	2.97

Toy	Cost
Cinderella Game	3.38
Backgammon for Jrs.	5.38
Nerf Football	3.97
Hula Hoop	3.37
Mouse Trap Game	8.78
Erector Set	9.92
Lite Brite	12.97
Perfection	9.78
Watch	$35.00
Gimme 5	9.96
Circus Pinball	22.97

Sample

Leisure Time Materials and Equipment

Middle School/High School
Students 12-18 Years Old

Toy	Cost
Casino Pinball	$ 26.74
Dirt Bike (electric racecar)	29.94
Pivot Pool	28.97
Touchdown (pull action toy)	6.93
Batting Tee (for softball)	11.97
Skateboard	5.97
Domino Rally	12.96
Bumbling Boxing (wind-up toy)	5.97
Kid Kong	9.97
Photo Electric Bowling	19.90
Gimme Five	9.96
Toss Across	14.97

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